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ABSTRACT

This collection of 64 papers from a 1997 international conference of special educators focuses on the challenges of diversity in education. Topics of the papers include: (1) assessment strategies for individuals with autism; (2) self-determination strategies for at-risk youth with learning, behavior, and emotional disabilities; (3) developing standards for professionals working with students with exceptionalities; (4) cooperative teaching and creating effective teams; (5) inclusive education implications for gifted youth; (6) dealing with test anxiety and underachievement of students with special needs; (7) inclusion of young children with disabilities; (8) developing collaborative partnerships in higher education; (9) a systemic approach to special education; (10) formative rhythmics; (11) tracking techniques used in the remedial teaching of writing; (12) intervention strategies for at-risk high school students; (13) teaching self-management to students with diverse needs; (14) diagnosis and remediation of early reading difficulties; (15) educator resistance and acceptance of inclusion; (16) developing effective school-to-work models for students with autism spectrum disorders; (17) educational software; (18) a conceptual model of diversity; (19) young volunteers with disabilities; (20)

low-income preschool programs in Korea; (21) effects of cognitive awareness training on boys with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD); (22) identification of deafness; (23) the implication of Vygotsky's theory for the assessment of disadvantaged learners; (24) funding special needs and diversity programs; (25) the improvement of the creativity of children with deafness; (26) culturally relevant partnerships between families and professionals; (27) responsibility and self-esteem; (28) early intervention program development; (29) the roles of paraeducators in special education; (30) turning cultural diversity into multiculturalism; (31) pursuing goal setting and career development to improve self-esteem and academic achievement; (32) learning styles and culturally diverse students with special needs; (33) comorbidity of ADHD in adults with mental retardation; (34) attitudes toward critical thinking among students enrolled in teacher education programs; (35) a transdisciplinary assessment model for children with ADHD; (36) special educator needs in working with students with emotional disturbances; (37) regular and special education teacher training; (38) enhancing resiliency in families of preschool children; (39) preschoolers' knowledge of mathematics; (40) teachers' perceptions of their influence in the psycho-emotional development of their students; (41) comparison of Canadian and Chinese teachers' perceptions and attitudes toward social integration; and (42) raising awareness of disabilities and promoting social integration of children with disabilities in elementary schools. (Papers include references.) (CR)

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Conference Proceedings

NEW HOPES, NEW HORIZONS
The Challenges of Diversity in Education

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Foreword

On August 3, 1997 hundreds of educators from throughout the world came together to meet each other, discuss exciting programs and research projects they were engaged in, and make plans to improve the lives of exceptional persons and their families. Special educators came from South Africa, Norway, Canada, the United States, the United Kingdom, Korea, Israel, Brazil, Japan, China, and other nations joined together to make our world a better place. The energy and ideas shared at this meeting were incredible. Based upon the our analysis of the papers in these **Proceedings** and the quality of the people we met at the meeting, we are confident in saying that the world is headed in a very good direction indeed and we are proud that special educators are among the many who are working so diligently to improve our planet. We very much enjoyed editing these **Proceedings** and we hope you benefit from the ideas in the papers. To reduce costs, we limited the length of each paper , but all authors have much more to share with their colleagues. Toward that end, we have listed authors' names and professional affiliations at the end of the **Proceedings**. Please feel free to contact them if you would care to get additional information about their work.

Greg Prater
Sam Minner

Northern Arizona University
Flagstaff, Arizona
United States Of America
June 30, 1997

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Special note: The order that papers appear in these proceedings is random and papers were limited to four pages.

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Eden's Bio-Behavioral Services:

A Multifaceted Assessment Strategy For Individuals With Autism

Marlene J. Cohen, M.Ed. & David L. Holmes, Ed.D.

The Eden Institute provides highly specialized education for individuals with autism. In particular, Eden is dedicated to individuals who may be in need of lifespan services and supports. As with many special needs students, those with autism require comprehensive assessment strategies in order to design an educational program that meets their needs. Eden uses Discrete Trial Theory as its primary instructional strategy. Discrete Trial theory has been documented as a successful teaching strategy from the early 1970s to present (Lovaas, 1981; Maurice, Green, & Luce, 1996). This method is successful largely due to focus on redundant and discrete teaching. The students are taught how to learn through rote practice, with reinforcement provided for successful task completion.

Educational Assessment

The structure of Eden Institute's program provides the behavioral prostheses necessary for the students to learn and develop skills. The educational environment is structured, reducing the confusion often seen in students with autism. Instruction is presented initially within learning cubicles designed to minimize distractions. The teaching staff offer intensive educational sessions, ensuring that the students remain engaged with the teacher, materials, and environment. The small student to staff ratio (1: 1.7) makes this type of intervention possible. Eden accomplishes this through the use of trained paraprofessionals and a certified educational faculty.

The Eden Institute Curriculum provides a comprehensive array of skills analyzed in a developmental and age appropriate sequence (Holmes, 1991). The content acts as a criterion referenced assessment of skill levels. The curriculum is task analyzed and ecologically based, focusing on the development of skills that will be expected in adult life. Developing functional skills for students with severe disabilities is crucial and is supported in the literature (Falvey, 1989; Sigafoos, 1987). By providing this type of instruction, Eden ensures that students with autism become independent and employable adults with autism. Many other programs focus on academic and other skill development, following a developmental model. Due to the significant learning challenges of many individuals with autism, this type of approach will not result in the level of independence obtained using a functional model. Eden focuses on developing normalized, chronologically age-appropriate skill development to achieve long-term goals.

Behavioral Assessment

Students with autism often exhibit behavior that interferes with learning. An unacceptable behavior warrants further investigation if it is harmful, work/learning interfering and/or restricting access to the community. Student behavior that falls into this category must then be systematically assessed to evaluate the necessity for more formal intervention. Eden uses functional analysis to determine the source of reinforcement for the individual (Axelrod, 1987). This is essential in order to determine an alternative teaching strategy as well as potential intervention strategies. The Eden Decision Model (EDM) was developed to assess all aspects of the student's behavior and environment prior to selecting a treatment plan (Gerhardt & Holmes, 1994). The model assesses the effects of medical, environmental, and curricular variables on the student's behavior. Often, this type of assessment leads to changes in the environment or curriculum that reduce or eliminate the necessity for formal intervention. If intervention is still required, the EDM provides the structure for the development of a comprehensive treatment plan.

Biomedical Assessment

Occasionally, a student does not progress satisfactorily despite a thorough evaluation of his or her educational and behavioral needs. It has been Eden's experience that educational and behavioral interventions will not be as effective when biomedical variables are present. A student's primary diagnosis of autism can be exacerbated by a secondary diagnosis such as depression or bipolar disorder. Accurate assessment is confounded by several challenges, including the inability of these students to self-report symptomotology. In conjunction with START Clinical Services, the Eden Institute staff collect the data that comprise a START Comprehensive Psychiatric Evaluation (Sovner & Lowry, 1990). This evaluation involves determining behavioral equivalents in assessing the existence of a dual diagnosis. The evaluation also includes direct observation of the student, an in-depth review of medical and other diagnostic evaluations, and a parent interview, focusing on student and family history. This data is presented to START Clinical Services for interpretation, which may result in a secondary diagnosis and pharmacological recommendations.

The use of medication for the purpose of controlling unacceptable behavior can lead to undesirable results, such as the diminished ability of the student to gain appropriate skills due to the sedative effects of many medications. Also, long-term side effects of medication, such as tardive dyskinesia, must be seriously considered. Eden views the responsible use of medication to treat a confirmed biomedical diagnosis as adjunctive to a comprehensive, behaviorally based educational program. When medication is used to this end, the student's educational benefit and quality of life can be greatly enhanced.

Serving students with autism requires ongoing, comprehensive evaluation of many aspects of behavior. Not all students will require all three levels of assessment. The sequence and prioritization of assessment is critical, focusing on education first. An individualized, comprehensive, bio-behavioral program can have a profound effect on the long-term productivity of the student as well as the positive functioning of the family.

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Taking Charge: Self Determination For At-Risk Youth With Learning, Behavior And Emotional Disabilities

Nancy J. Lavelle, Ph.D.

TAKING CHARGE provides a practical self-determination curriculum for re-engaging resistant, unmotivated, and apathetic learning, behaviorally and emotionally disabled youth who are at-risk for truancy, dropping out, school failure, delinquency, substance abuse, suicide and depression, and future unemployment. The curriculum has been field tested in public and private schools, as well as the juvenile justice system, over the last eight years. Project results show significant gains in self concept, school performance, and overall life satisfaction, and a reduction in delinquent behavior among project participants (Lavelle, 1989(a)(b); Lavelle & Cowardin, 1994).

The TAKING CHARGE model consists of a series of dialogues, self-identification and evaluation exercises and skill assessment tools for use in twelve interactive sessions between a teacher or other committed adult partner and an at-risk youth. Using the TAKING CHARGE model, the youth and adult partner meet in dialogue toward action. In each session, the interaction between the student and adult partner provides a structure in which self-discovery and support are the models. With guidance and assistance, the student is enabled to: determine areas of concern; determine optimum learning styles; identify goals; design strategies for success; create a network of support; and develop an ACTION PLAN. The ACTION PLAN emerges as a natural result of seeing possibilities matched with the means to make them a reality.

Five principles form the foundation for the design of the model:

- The key to successful re-engagement in school is the young person's personal decision to do well.
- A student's perception of himself as a success or failure in school is an important determining factor in the decision to do well.
- Positive self-esteem is the result of building competencies to meet concerns and taking specific action toward self-determined goals.
- Appropriate specific action emerges in partnership and dialogue with another human being.
- Building a network of support allows the young person to move forward with effective action even in the midst of difficult circumstances.

TAKING CHARGE was developed in response to the growing evidence that an increasing number of young people are at-risk in our society (Catterall, 1986; Huntington & Bender, 1993). A basic premise of our approach is that what is missing in education is the opportunity for young people to take charge of their own learning process. Learning opens up new possibilities for youth to see themselves as responsible for their choices in life.

Contrary to the popular viewpoint that many youth have limited opportunities for growth, learning and success, our contention is that there exists among young people a pervasive and profound despair that goes unrecognized by educators and other professionals as well as the young person himself (Erikson, 1968). This despair does not necessarily arise out of what we think of as poor parenting, society's ills, or lack of opportunity. Rather in our experience, youth have asked a legitimate question about the human condition: Is life meaningful? Does anything really make a difference (Erikson, 1968)?

The question as to why children are failing to learn in our schools today is obviously complex (Gonzales, 1986). We suggest that a fundamental difficulty lies in our notion of learning. Rather than teaching, imparting information or knowledge, our role as educators should be to provide opportunities for the young person to learn how to learn.

It has been said that young people are not goal directed. On the contrary, we have found that young people are unaware of their own strengths and weaknesses; capabilities and possibilities. They do not perceive themselves as learners with the capacity to develop competency to take care of themselves in various domains of concern (i.e. family, health, friends, school, job). To re-engage young people in the learning process, they must be actively involved in discovering for themselves what it will take for them to learn (Borkowski, Weyhing, & Turner, 1986). Rather than being the recipient of expert advice, young people should be invited to work in partnership with an adult who is committed to listen and provide the guidance, feedback, and necessary assistance (Hollingsworth & Woodward, 1993; Palincsar, 1986; Phillips, 1990; Turnure, 1986; Wiens, 1983).

In making possibilities a reality, one of the key elements is building a network of support in partnership with the young person. This network must include not only the young person's parents or guardians, but also other people who the young person himself perceives as supportive: a former teacher, a friend, a cousin, a grandparent, an uncle. In this way the young person increases his capacity to engage in a dialogue with others who can assist him in taking action to meet his concerns in life.

As we enter into a period of increasing complexity both socially and technologically, we are concerned that all our young people have the opportunity of reaching their academic potential and furthering their opportunities for personal growth and success (Phillips, 1990). That an educated citizenship benefits the quality of life for all its citizens goes without question. That young people begin to take responsibility for their own learning is not yet a common point of view (Phillips, 1990). TAKING CHARGE offers a new opportunity for young people to rise above their circumstances and press into new arenas of learning and opportunity to achieve new levels of satisfaction and well-being for themselves, their family, in their jobs, and in the community.

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New Horizons in Personnel Preparation: Developing Standards for Professionals Working with Students with Exceptionalities

Rachelle M. Bruno, Alan J. Koenig, Bill Swan, & Fred Weintraub

In 1989, the Council for Exceptional Children (CEC), an international organization of special educators headquartered in Reston, Virginia, USA, adopted professional standards for entry into special education practice. The standards required that CEC determine the essential knowledge and skills special educators should possess. A Subcommittee on Knowledge and Skills was established as part of CEC's Professional Standards and Practice Standing Committee to develop and validate these standards. The work of this subcommittee has taken place in three phases. First, a common core of knowledge and skills for all beginning special educators was developed. Next, knowledge and skills needed in addition to the common core for beginning teachers of students with specific exceptionalities were developed and validated. At the present time, standards of knowledge and skill for beginning professionals beyond that of the special education teacher, such as diagnostician and administrator, and also standards for paraeducators are being developed and validated.

Phase I

Four principles guided this initial phase: All CEC divisions participated by supporting two representatives for the Subcommittee; shared decision making was an integral part of all efforts; input was sought from teachers and other direct service providers; and information on the project was continually shared with all interested parties.

Based on the Subcommittee's intensive two and one-half year (1989-1991) review of current research, best practices, and existing knowledge and skills for special educators, an initial survey was drafted. The survey's purpose was to obtain the expert judgment of experienced special educators who were CEC members to determine the essential knowledge and skills for entry level special educators. This initial draft was comprised of over 500 items in 18 categories. After considerable analysis and critique by the Subcommittee, the content was refined to 195 items in 9 categories; items concerning diversity were infused throughout the survey.

A draft survey using a three point rating scale and instructions were developed. The expert sample was comprised of 1,072 CEC members stratified by federation, division, and role (50% teacher; 50% non-teacher) and randomly selected from membership rolls.

A total of 574 (54%) CEC members responded to the Survey with 522 Surveys being usable. Surveys were received from each of the 50 states, most territories, and Canada. Analyses of differences by role and correlations by years of experiences yielded several findings, but far fewer than were expected, with a .05 level of significance. Thus the rating results could be interpreted for each item independently.

In March, 1991, the Survey results were reviewed by the Subcommittee using the following criteria: If 75% or more of the respondents rated an item as "Essential", the item was included. If no more than 30% of the respondents rated an item as "Essential", the item was excluded. All items not included in the initial inclusion/exclusion judgments were discussed and a final decision was made by group consensus.

Based on the deliberations using these criteria, the 107 knowledge and skills in the following eight categories were identified as essential for all beginning special educators: Philosophical, Historical, and Legal Foundations of Special Education; Characteristics of Learners; Assessment, Diagnosis, and Evaluation; Instructional Content and Practice; Planning and Managing the Teaching and Learning Environment; Managing Student Behavior and Social Interaction Skills; Communication and Collaborative Partnerships; and Professionalism and Ethical Practice. Eleven (10%) of the items focused on diversity.

Phase II

In this phase of the project, specialized knowledge and skills statements beyond the common core were organized by exceptionality and early childhood. The procedure described above was used with the following revisions. Initial drafts of knowledge and skills statements were brought to the subcommittee from the CEC division representing various exceptionalities or age groups, e.g., The Division for Learning Disabilities developed an initial draft of items beyond the common core needed for beginning teachers of students with specific learning disabilities. The validation samples for each exceptionality area were 200 members from the appropriate division, with at least 50% of the sample being teachers of students with that exceptionality.

Knowledge and skills were validated for beginning special education teachers in the following areas: deaf and hard of hearing, emotional and behavioral disorders, gifts or talents, learning disabilities, mental retardation and developmental disabilities, physical and health disabilities, and visual impairments. In addition, knowledge and skills for teachers of beginning teachers of students in early childhood were developed in collaboration with other organizations working with this population.

Because the knowledge and skills viewed as essential would change over time, a procedure for amending both the common core and the exceptionality specific areas was also developed during this phase of the project.

Phase III

In this current phase, standards of knowledge and skill for beginning professionals beyond that of special education teacher, such as diagnostician and administrator, have been developed and validated by members of CEC. At least half of the individuals in the validation samples for these standards have been individuals serving in those roles. These professionals are expected to demonstrate the knowledge and skills of the common core for all beginning special education teachers, as well as the standards for at least one exceptionality area, in addition to the standards for their specific role. Standards for paraeducators have been drafted and are being validated by a sample of members of CEC, as well as other professional organizations. Also, the procedure for amending the standards has been actuated as members or groups within CEC have put forth revisions or additions to approved standards.

Implementation of Standards

Following adoption of the common core of standards for all beginning teachers and as the standards for specific exceptionality areas, they were integrated into CEC's standards for entry into special education practice (certification) and approval of special education professional preparation programs (accreditation). In North America, criteria for who is eligible to practice special education is determined by each state in the United States and by each province in Canada. While a number of states and provinces also accredit teacher preparation programs in colleges and universities, in the United States there is also a system of national accreditation. This is conducted by the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). CEC is a member of NCATE and sets special education accreditation standards for NCATE reviews and approves special education professional preparation programs. The CEC standards were adopted by NCATE in the fall of 1996 and colleges and universities are now beginning to seek CEC approval under the new standards.

Copies of the standards have been provided to provincial and state education agencies. CEC is working with leaders of those agencies to align their standards with CEC's, so that a special educator prepared and certified to practice in one state or province would be eligible to practice in another state or province should they choose to relocate. While the standards have not been validated outside of the U.S. and Canada, CEC is interested in working with individuals, organizations, and governments in other countries to determine the appropriate use of the standards in the larger international community.

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Cooperative Teaching-Creating Effective Teams

Robbie Ludy, Ed.D., Chris Schnieders, Ph.D., & Anita Wright

As the school-age population grows more diverse in the United States, the need increases for heterogeneity in both the perception and behavior of professional educators. A large number of children are entering schools with obstacles that place them at-risk for successful learning. These factors may develop early with lack of prenatal care and low birthweight resulting in a serious disability or, during the developmental years, when students can be exposed to other conditions which may impede achievement. Substance abuse, lead poisoning, poverty, and homelessness are environmental factors that interfere with learning (Center for Health Policy Studies, 1992).

Not only are learners exposed to situations that place them at-risk, there are also a growing number of ethnically diverse students entering the schools representing a variety of identities (Coughlin, 1993). Additionally, growing numbers of students come to school speaking many languages other than English (Gersten, 1996). All of these factors, whether environmental, biological, cultural or medical, represent a significant shift in the school-age population facing the teacher each day. With such diversity, there is no way that one person can address all of the needs all of the time.

These changes in the school population have motivated educators to reexamine the meaning of education and their role in its delivery. Traditionally, teachers are thought of as people who teach youth. Seldom does one describe a teacher as a person who is "good" with adults. Yet limiting the image of a teacher to one who only works with young people means that his/her role stops at the door of the classroom. In this definition, that teacher stands alone and each classroom is an educational island with few connections to the entire system (Pugach & Johnson, 1995).

In order for an expanded definition to exist, there must be changes in the traditional educational system. Teacher preparation programs must provide training to preservice teachers so that they can develop the skills necessary for working with adults. Moreover, school administrators have a responsibility to provide additional instruction to teachers already in the field so that they may expand their skills.

Although increased training will provide a foundation for improved collaboration in schools, it cannot totally remove the barriers which may hinder this effort. Potential barriers to cooperative teaching may be organized in three categories: attitudinal, structural, and competency. Each of these areas include a number of potential hindrances.

Attitudinal barriers include a perceived loss of power or autonomy. Working cooperatively with others requires a modification of the educator's role and there may be a fear that this will be accompanied by a reduction in one's professional status. There may also be a fear of the unknown. To alter the tradition of what is meant by education may be uncomfortable to some individuals. One response to this discomfort is cynicism. Any time there is a major modification in the system it is likely to be discounted by cynics.

Structural barriers include an administrative structure that was not designed for professionals working together. Problems with scheduling, time restrictions, increasing workloads, and additional paper work may prohibit professionals from entering into cooperative professional relationships. Legal guidelines for required documentation and caseload may further complicate the situation.

Barriers in terms of a lack of knowledge and skills are frequently noted by both educators and administrators as impeding the use of collaborative models. As previously noted, while the teacher training program must begin to prepare teachers to work in cooperative relationships, schools must also join in the effort to train individuals in developing partnerships. Furthermore, professionals and agencies outside education must work to develop collaborative skills.

Cooperative teaching is one application of collaborative theory present in education today (Bauwens & Hourcade, 1993). Although there are a variety of collaborative models (Idol, Nevin, & Paolucci-Whitcomb, 1994), cooperative teaching requires additional professional interactions during the teaching/learning process. It is this interaction that enhances and leads to successful performance for all students. In cooperative teaching professionals process through a multi-tiered framework.

Within the first tier of cooperative teaching, the special education teacher and general education teacher unite to focus on students with special needs. At this level, there is a recognition of several personal variables. Professionals must recognize that each enters the relationship with strengths and weaknesses. Likewise, team members must be cognizant that students have both skills and abilities to celebrate as well as provide challenges. These challenges are both intra- and inter-personal, involving people other than those in the classroom (family, community, etc.). As team members define these personal variables, the purpose of cooperative teaching is more clearly determined.

At the next level, components of the educational construct are recognized. Systemic variables include curricular framing, general classroom objectives, and individual objectives and strategies designed for learners with unique educational needs. With a solid understanding of the educational constructs, team members are better able to organize and deliver meaningful instruction and assessment. Participants build on both individual strengths and a clearly defined educational plan. At this stage, there may be no clear delineation between assessment and instruction; however, both are delivered mindful of the personal and educational variables.

Until now the needs of the classroom participants have been the primary focus; nevertheless, the success of cooperative teaming will only be assured when those involved in school and/or district decision making commit to cooperative teaming. These individuals must provide assistance with on-going review and administrative support. They must be willing to accept a shared responsibility for all aspects of the teaming process. It is important that administrators and others not directly related to the teaming process on a daily basis, provide a level of emotional support by respecting cooperative teaching.

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Inclusive Education: Implications For Education Of Gifted And Talented Children

Carolyn R. Yewchuk, PhD

The movement to include all children, irrespective of special needs, in the regular classroom is being driven by general dissatisfaction with the achievement of students within a stratified system of education and the perception that the democratic principles of an egalitarian society are not being applied in the schools. Children with handicaps and/or other special needs who have been segregated from the mainstream for purposes of specialized instruction to accommodate those needs are being returned to the regular classroom as part of a movement to normalize their education.

Proponents of inclusive education have generally assumed that the benefits which will accrue to children who are at some educational disadvantage will generalize also to those who are advantaged as learners. This assumption bears scrutiny. Some of the factors impinging on academic success within the inclusive paradigm are of general applicability to all students, and hence are of relevance to the education of gifted students. On the other hand, the unique educational needs of exceptionally quick learners and thinkers may require options that differ from those that are appropriate for other students (Yewchuk, 1996).

The proposal that all children with special learning needs should be educated within the regular classroom strikes at the very heart of accepted practice in gifted education. Gifted children need instructional time together as a group to develop a feeling of themselves as "normal" (Clark, 1997). They require school programs that are differentiated from those for other students, with emphasis on advanced content, higher order thinking and processing, and exploration of interdisciplinary issues and themes geared to their advanced abilities (VanTassel-Baska, 1997).

The gifted education movement has developed in reaction to the failure of regular education to provide for the needs of our brightest students.

A fundamental difference of opinion between advocates and critics of inclusive education centers on whether the provision of special programs in segregated settings is consistent with the principles of a democratic society. Strong advocates for full inclusion such as Stainback and Stainback (1992) are convinced that all children, including the gifted, should be educated in the regular classroom. They maintain that in an egalitarian society all classrooms and schools should be representative of the full range of human diversity. Opponents of full inclusion as the only option for all children with special needs, however, contend that specialized instruction for gifted and talented students and other students with special needs is part of the fabric of democracy. They point out, for example, that it is accepted practice for our gifted Olympic hopefuls to receive highly specialized training with expert coaches in segregated settings of like-ability peers.

The research evidence on ability grouping clearly supports placing gifted students together for differentiated instruction. The data suggest that elimination of programs that group students for instruction by ability would be academically harmful, and that the damage would be most severe for students in enriched and accelerated classes. "The achievement level of such students would fall dramatically if they were required to move at the common pace. No one can be certain that there would be a way to repair the harm that would be done." (Kulik & Kulik, 1997, p. 241).

Among some segments of society there is a belief that provision of differentiated programs for gifted and talented children is somehow "undemocratic" (Fetterman, 1988). Efforts to bring children with special needs up to the norm is seen as consistent with principles of equity, but provision of special services for children already achieving, or potentially capable of achieving, above the norm is dubbed "playing favorites" (Sapon-Shevin, 1994). American legislation mandates the right of children with disabilities to free and appropriate education based on their individual needs, but there is no federal mandate requiring school districts to provide special programs for gifted students (Karnes & Marquardt, 1997).

Both proponents and critics of special programming for gifted students are agreed on the inadequacy of undifferentiated classroom instruction to challenge the potential of our brightest students. Where they disagree is on the form of the adaptation required. Advocates of inclusive education believe that the needs of gifted and talented children can be accommodated within the regular classroom which has been restructured according to the principles of full inclusion. All of the proposed reforms have the potential to result in improvement of services to gifted and talented students. On the other hand, advocates of special programming are fearful that the inclusive classroom will perpetuate the neglect, and at times oppression, of gifted and talented children characteristic of the regular classrooms of the past and present. The proposed reforms can decrease opportunities for full development of exceptional ability if the special educational needs of these children are ignored.

It is important for educators of the gifted to establish linkages, partnerships and collaborative ventures with educators outside their field, in support of goals and values which are directed at recognizing and meeting the needs of all students as effectively as possible. "There is certainly every reason for these concerns to focus as much on promoting the recognition and development of students' talents, or giving deliberate attention to the unique, positive 'needs' associated with giftedness, as there is to improving ways to remediate, remove deficiencies, or overcome the limitations of students" (Treffinger, 1991, p. 10). The current emphasis within the reform movement on excellence and the raising of standards is consistent with the goal within gifted education of fostering the development of the highest potential of gifted students through the provision of a challenging and meaningful curriculum.

Thus educators of the gifted can have a positive influence on the movement for educational reform. They are in a position to assist in the development of excellence in school programming by focusing on the individual educational needs of students and their unique strengths and talents as a vehicle for differentiating the curriculum in appropriate content-oriented, process-oriented and community-oriented ways to challenge those needs. The essence of these rights is the necessity of focusing on the needs of all children as special learners within the classroom, and on developing special curricula and techniques of instruction to meet those needs.

It would be unfortunate if the movement towards inclusive education resulted in gifted students being returned to classrooms where no special provisions are made for their needs. The challenge facing educators is to ensure that the educational needs of gifted and talented children can be accommodated within the proposals for restructuring.

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Managing Life When a Child has a Disability: Educational Implications

Kate Scorgie, Ph.D., Lorraine Wilgosh, Ph.D., & Linda McDonald, Ph.D.

Historically, research has focused on the stresses encountered by families when a child has a disability (e.g., Donovan, 1988). Many parents of children with disabilities have asserted that they have not only been able to cope successfully, but have experienced beneficial outcomes in spite of the stresses (e.g., Meyer, 1995). Therefore, a number of recent studies exploring healthy life adaptation are grounded on the assumption that outcome is dependent on how stress is perceived and managed by the individual or family unit (e.g., Aldwin, 1994). The purpose of the present study was to answer the following questions on life management of families that include children with a range of disabilities across a broad age range: (1) What are the various strategies parents use to manage life effectively? (2) Can we identify personal attributes or abilities that characterize parents who manage life successfully, and (3) determine how parents are transformed through their parenting experiences?

Method

Open-ended, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 15 parents representing families containing one or more children (ages three to 25) with a wide range of disabilities (e.g., deafness, severe multiple disabilities). Families had been identified by agency personnel as using life management strategies effectively. Prior to the interview, each parent signed a written consent form which assured confidentiality and the right to withdraw from the research at any time. Qualitative analysis of the interviews resulted in the emergence of nine themes, confirmed by the parents in follow-up interviews, and related to the three aspects of life management addressed by the research questions.

Results and Discussion

The nine themes (Scorgie, 1996) are summarized here. (1) Effective parents used such strategies as positive reframing of thoughts and attitudes about personal circumstances (theme 1); maintaining a workable balance with respect to personal roles and responsibilities (theme 2); and locating and utilizing resources effectively to meet personal, child, or family needs (theme 3). (2) Parents perceived as important: personal character traits (theme 4); decision-making and problem- solving abilities (theme 5); and a philosophy of life (theme 6). (3) Finally, they reported positive transformational outcomes that were: personal (theme 7); relational (theme 8); and perspectival (theme 9). Those findings directly relevant to meeting the challenges of diversity in education will be described here, to increase educators' understanding of families' life management strategies in order to optimize parent-teacher partnerships in educating children with disabilities.

Through accepting their children's disabilities parents were able to come to terms with their family circumstances (theme 1). According to these parents, determination to be successful means becoming experts on disability, being realistic, acknowledging that progress takes time, and being willing to persevere through difficult periods. The parents should be regarded by educators as experts on their child with special needs, a valuable resource. Parenting a child with special needs involved three different roles: parent, teacher, and advocate (theme 2), but they need to be parents first. Parents expressed responsibility for advocacy, and educating people about their child's disability or about disability in general. Thus, parents have knowledge and leadership skills for effective educational partnerships.

These parents of children with disabilities often have greater contact with a more diverse number of professionals (theme 3), including education, health care, government and social services professionals, than do other parents. Helpful professionals were described as having time to discuss parental concerns, were honest, gave encouragement, allowed parents to express their emotions and discover their strengths, showed an openness to alternatives, and had knowledge of additional sources of support. Parents want effective partnerships with helpful professionals. The parents confirmed that having a strategy for confronting problems and making decisions (theme 5) has contributed to their ability to manage life more effectively. Ownership or control of the decision-making process was foremost, creatively exploring all possible solutions, and ensuring action on decisions. They want involvement in decision-making.

Parents who manage life effectively are people who receive personal strength from strong inner convictions (theme 6). Educators can develop their own personal strengths from parent-educator partnerships. Parents have acquired roles that resulted in beneficial changes in their lives (theme 7), as parent group leaders, members of advisory councils, etc. They have much to teach educators on the benefits of flexibility and change.

In summary, parents can be strong, effective partners in the education of their children with disabilities (themes 2, 5). They know their children best, and educators will benefit from their knowledge and experience (theme 1). They have a strong commitment to obtain the best services for their child, and educators and other professionals must not become defensive, but can develop their own personal strengths, as a result of effective partnerships with the parents (themes 6, 7). Parents indicated that they need support for and recognition of the importance of their parenting role, from the professionals with whom they work (theme 3). Thus, these parents, who represent families that are using life management strategies effectively, provide insight for educators which can be helpful in optimizing parent-teacher partnerships, to meet the challenges of diversity in educating children with disabilities.

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Managing Life When a Child Has a Disability: A Questionnaire Follow-up

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In studying life management strategies, researchers have focused on parents of children with specific disabilities such as hearing impairments (e.g., Morgan-Redshaw, Wilgosh, & Bibby, 1990), and on specific age groupings, such as preschool children (e.g., Redington, Kysela, & McDonald, 1995). Furthermore, parents' writings on the impact of children with disabilities have provided insightful information on life management strategies for individual families (e.g., Pivato, 1990). However, few studies of family life management have ranged across both child disability types and child ages (e.g., Bailey, Blasco, & Simeonsson, 1992). The present study, therefore, was designed to present a more comprehensive representation of effective life management of parents of children with a variety of disabilities, across a broad age range.

The total study followed a qualitative/quantitative methodology. A qualitative analysis was completed on interviews with 15 parents (Scorgie, Wilgosh, & McDonald, 1996), followed by a survey of a larger sample of families. This paper summarizes the research findings of the survey portion of the study, intended to corroborate and extend the findings of the qualitative study.

Methodology

The Life Management Survey (LMS)

The LMS was composed of 59 statements for parents to rate on a five-point Likert scale. These statements were constructed from the nine themes generated by the qualitative analysis of interview data (Scorgie et al., 1996); covering effective life management strategies (themes 1 to 3), important personal attributes for successful life management (themes 3 to 6), and positive transformational outcomes (themes 7 to 9). Statements 1-31 covered themes pertaining to life management strategies. Parents were asked to rate the importance of various strategies to their own parenting success from "not important" to "essential." For statements 32-43, parents were asked to rate parent characteristics important to them, and statements 44-59 portrayed parental transformations that parents were asked to rate.

Survey Distribution and Response

Distribution of the LMS was coordinated by an agency serving persons with a variety of disabilities and their families. Two hundred copies of the survey were mailed to families judged by agency personnel to be managing life effectively. Each survey was accompanied by a cover letter which described the study and requested that surveys be returned anonymously in a stamped envelop addressed to the primary researcher. Eighty surveys were returned, a return rate of 42.3%.

Results and Discussion

Sixty-five (81.3%) responses represented two-parent families and the balance, single-parent families. The majority (78.8%) resided in urban settings. Sixty-four (80%) of the surveys were completed by mothers. Fifty-one (64%) of the young people with disabilities were male, and 29 (36%) were female; they ranged in age from preschooler to adult, and represented a broad range of disabilities.

Analysis of Life Management Survey

Theme 1: Reframing. Strategies rated as most essential related to accepting the child as he/she is, trusting one's own instincts, and advocating self-confidently. Sixty-five percent of respondents indicated that a very important or essential strategy is to adapt plans flexibly.

Theme 2: Balancing Roles and Responsibilities. For those who are married, nurturing marriage rated the highest score in this section, with 79.4% of the respondents ranking it as either very important or essential. Second in ranking was the strategy of balancing time between all the children in the family.

Theme 3: Utilizing Resources. Acquiring skills necessary for working with professionals received the highest rating for theme 3, yet networking with professionals received a number of negative comments indicating that dealing with professionals was often a source of stress.

Theme 4: Personal Character Traits. One parent characteristic, patience, was rated as "essential" by over 50% of respondents. All other listed parent traits, except creativity, were rated as either very important or essential by the majority of respondents.

Theme 5: Decision-making and problem-solving ability. Over 50% of the respondents ranked personal characteristics related to decision-making skills as either "very important" or "essential."

Theme 6: Philosophy of Life. Belief in a personal choice over life outcomes received the highest ranking, with over 80% rating it as either "very important" or "essential." This was followed by possessing strong personal convictions. Belief that adversity brings beneficial outcomes ranked third.

Theme 7: Personal Transformations. Over 50% of the respondents rated the personal transformation statements as either "agree" or "strongly agree." The statement receiving the highest ranking was "I have learned how to speak out," followed by "I am more compassionate," "I have learned I can achieve," and "I am stronger as a person."

Theme 8: Relational Transformations. Approximately 90% of the respondents either agreed or strongly agreed with two of the four statements, "this experience has brought wonderful people into my life," and, "I have learned to see life from a different perspective." The majority of respondents also agreed or strongly agreed with the statement, "I have made a difference in the lives of other people."

Theme 9: Perspectival Transformations. Over 80% of the respondents either agreed or strongly agreed with the statements regarding a more authentic view of success and knowledge of what is important and valuable in life. Over 70% agreed or strongly agreed with the statement "I make the most of each day," and 63% agreed or strongly agreed with the statement, "I celebrate life more now."

In conclusion, results of the quantitative analysis confirmed and extended the findings of the qualitative analysis for a larger sample of families, as a representation of effective life management for parents of children with disabilities over a broad age range.

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Students with Special Needs: Dealing with Test Anxiety and Underachievement

Karen Kovach, Ph.D., Lorraine Wilgosh, Ph.D., & Len Stewin, Ph.D.

Many students have difficulty dealing with test and performance anxiety. For students with learning difficulties or disabilities, test and performance anxiety may be a result of failure to achieve success on class activities, assignments and tests, leading to task avoidance and underachievement. The literature indicates extensive examination of test and performance anxiety, but less research on the relationships between cramming and procrastination in exam and test preparation, worry about exam performance, test anxiety, and students with learning difficulties or disabilities.

Research (e.g., Hathaway & Davis, 1987) has indicated that test anxiety develops very early in children with mild to moderate disabilities, and is greater for students with learning disabilities than for those without disabilities (e.g., Bryan, Sonnefeld, & Grabowski, 1983). Kovach, Whyte, and Vosahlo (1990) assessed the study skills of university students with learning disabilities, identifying severe difficulties in academic motivation and test taking strategies. Kovach (1992) reported additional difficulties for similar students, including problems in attention, organization, planning and work pace, motivation, test anxiety, and study skills.

The purpose of this study was to examine intervention strategies to alter cramming and procrastination behaviors, and alleviate worry and test anxiety, for students at risk of academic failure.

Method

Undergraduate university students responded to advertising for volunteers who worry about exams and experience test anxiety that interferes with their exam performance (i.e., students at-risk for academic failure or low performance). They signed a consent form, giving informed consent to participate with assurance of confidentiality, acknowledging their right to withdraw from the study at any time, and giving the researchers access to their university grades.

The three intervention conditions were: (1) procrastination/test anxiety reading materials; (2) effective cramming focus for students with high procrastination, cramming, and worry scores; and (3) study skills/pacing focus for students with high anxiety/worry scores and moderate procrastination/ cramming scores. For the pilot project, 19 students completed a pretest questionnaire, and were placed into intervention conditions 2 or 3 (3-hour interventions) on the basis of high or low procrastination scores, respectively. For the larger study, based on pretest questionnaire responses, 33 students were placed in one of the three interventions (8.5 hours over five sessions for conditions 2 and 3). For both studies, session effectiveness was assessed by feedback forms, informal comments, grades, and a posttest questionnaire.

Results and Discussion

Intervention Evaluations

On an intervention feedback form, all students rated the sessions "quite effective" to "very effective." Some comments included the following: "It will make my exams more manageable;" "Beneficial, sorry I didn't look into this earlier in my university career;" "It made me realize that I'm not alone and can still overcome this problem."

Interview Feedback

Three students were interviewed and described test anxiety symptoms including rapid heart beat, shortness of breath, nausea, dizziness, and terror. Previous attempts to deal with test anxiety had involved studying more and using self-help books, but "nothing helped." All were procrastinators and worriers, and typically stayed up all night to cram before an exam. From the intervention sessions they learned not to cram, to space out studying, to schedule breaks, and get enough sleep, as well as study strategies, all of which they were able to apply at final exam time.

Pre-test/Post-test Questionnaire Comparison

For the 12 students who completed the pilot study posttest questionnaire, there were significant pre-post differences (t-tests, $p<.05$) for all seven scales. Separating the 12 into high ($n = 6$) and low ($n = 6$) procrastinators, five of the seven scales showed significant pre-post differences. Therefore, the pretest questionnaire was successful in dividing the subjects into high and low procrastinators; and the interventions, effective in reducing cramming/procrastination and anxiety/worry, and improving study skills.

For the larger study, intervention 1 (readings-only; $n = 11$) showed no significant pre/posttest differences in the questionnaire responses or grades. Thus, relevant reading materials alone may be of limited effect in dealing with correlates of test anxiety, cramming, and procrastination. For intervention 2 (effective-cramming focus; $n = 9$), there was also no significant grade improvement or pre/posttest questionnaire difference. Thus, the primary session focus on teaching more effective cramming strategies was not effective for this high-risk group, who likely require greater intervention/support. For intervention 3 (study skills-pacing focus; $n = 13$), there were significant pre/post questionnaire differences (improved ratings) for five of the seven questionnaire scales (anxiety, worry, procrastination, study skills, and total mean score). This group showed significant symptom reduction as measured by questionnaire, but not grades.

Results Using the Intervention Strategies for Students with Learning Disabilities

For students with learning disabilities, who participate in weekly one-hour group sessions using the same intervention strategies, there are improved grades and work habits, fewer university withdrawals, and more successful degree completions. Of particular importance to these students has been the introduction of pacing strategies during exam times to help control the high levels of test anxiety found for a majority of students with learning disabilities.

Based on a limited sample of postsecondary students, the results suggest that the seven-scale questionnaire has some usefulness in differentiating students into separate groups for selective intervention to deal with test anxiety, procrastination, and other exam/performance stresses. Furthermore, there was some questionnaire evidence that interventions 2 (pilot study) and 3 (both studies) are effective in helping at-risk students with test anxiety, to cope with that anxiety and other dimensions of stressful exam and test preparation. The strong, positive self-reports of students on the effectiveness of all three intervention conditions also support the efficacy of such approaches in helping at-risk students, and those with learning disabilities, to deal with the correlates of test anxiety.

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Promoting Acceptance of Individuals with Disabilities:
Implications for Inclusion of Young Children with Disabilities

Paddy Cronin Favazza, Ed.D., Poonam Kumar, M.A., & Leslie Phillipsen, Ph.D.

Attitude Formation

An attitude is a multi-component construct , having affective, cognitive, and behavioral components. According to Triandis (1971) an attitude can be defined as an idea (cognitive component) that is charged with emotion (affective component) and predisposes a class of actions (behavioral component) to a particular social situation. Regardless of which attitude referent (a person, event, or object) the attitude is directed towards, researchers generally agree that attitudes have several elements in common (Antonak & Livneh, 1988). First, attitudes are learned through indirect experiences with the attitude referent (i.e., media, books, visual materials). Some of the earliest research in this area demonstrated how African American children, who were not depicted in media, materials in school settings, were held in low esteem by Caucasian children (Clark & Clark, 1939; Goodman, 1952). More recently, similar results were found with children with disabilities. When children with disabilities are not represented in visual images in our class settings or communities, it can contribute to the development of a negative image about children with disabilities (Favazza & Odom, 1997; Favazza, Kumar, & Phillipsen, 1996). Second, attitudes are learned through direct experiences with the attitude referent. Research has clearly demonstrated that positive experiences with individuals with disabilities can contribute to acceptance (Favazza & Odom, 1996; Favazza & Odom, 1997; Voeltz, 1982). Third, attitudes are influenced by the child's primary social group. For a young child, the primary social group is the family. Therefore, the perceptions and views held by the child's parents are critical in attitude development which in turn, has implications for including parents in interventions designed to promote acceptance. Fourth, attitudes are formed at an early age and are relatively stable once they are formed (Clark & Clark, 1939; Conant & Budoff, 1982; Diamond, 1993).

Attitude Measurement

The components of attitudes (affective, behavioral, and cognitive) have been incorporated into a variety of assessment methodologies such as sociometric assessments, global measures, interviews, and behavioral observations. Because of the multifaceted nature of attitudes, a triangulation of measures is warranted when assessing attitudes (Favazza, Kumar, & Phillipsen, 1996). Each of these measures approaches attitude from a different perspective. For example, the cognitive component is usually represented by a statement of opinion or belief, and assigns a desirable or undesirable attribute or characteristic to the attitude referent. Asking the question "What does it mean to be handicapped?" would indicate attributes, ideas, and perceptions of an individual with a disability (Favazza & Odom, 1996).

The affective component can be measured in physiological arousal tests (e.g., blood pressure, pupil dilation, heart beat, skin conductance), but is more typically assessed using phenomenological measures (e.g., scales based on Likert's method of summated ratings, evaluative factor of semantic differential scales), and some sociometric assessments (e.g., requiring the respondent to state whom he/she likes) (Sale & Carey, 1995). Some sociometric ratings operationalize the conitive component as a child is asked his/her intended behavior in a specific social situation. "I would choose to play with ____" is an example of a phrase from a sociometric rating that indicates behavioral intent. Likewise, some items from global assessments operationalize the conative component (by reflecting behavioral intent). "Would you talk to a kid who couldn't see?" is an example of an item from the Acceptance Scale for Kindergartners (ASK) (Favazza & Odom, 1996) that illustrates this point. The actual behavioral component is typically measured with direct observations of peer preferences in play settings (Guralnick & Groom, 1988; Strain, 1984), but could also be documented in teacher report of changes in child behavior (Favazza & Odom, 1997). While each of these methodologies captures some aspect of an attitude, each has strengths and limitations as well. Therefore, without the use of multiple data sources, the view of the attitude will be limited at best.

Research on Attitudes Toward Individuals with Disabilities

Research indicates that children as young as 4 and 5 of age have perceptions about individuals with disabilities (Diamond, 1993; Favazza & Odom, 1996,1997; Jones & Sisk, 1970). In addition, research indicates that placement alone does not guarantee acceptance. In fact, young children with disabilities typically are not accepted by nondisabled children unless interventions are in place to promote acceptance (Favazza & Odom, 1996, 1997, Voeltz, 1982). This is consistent with research on attitudes of older typically developing children (see Yuker, 1988 for extensive reviews).

Implications for Promoting Positive Attitudes Toward Individuals with Differences

Important features in programs designed to promote acceptance include addressing the foundational influences of the attitude construct by a) providing indirect exposure, b) providing direct experiences, and c) including the child's primary social group. Favazza and Odom (1997) developed a multi-component intervention that incorporates all of these aspects into an effective, naturalistic, and economical program designed to promote acceptance of children with disabilities. Children are exposed to persons with disabilities at school and at home through carefully selected books and guided discussions that highlight similarities between the two children. In addition, children participate in structured play experiences that are designed to promote interactions between children with and without disabilities using environmental arrangement strategies (Deklyen & Odom, 1989; Odom & Strain, 1984). These include, but are not limited to carefully selecting toys/materials that are likely to promote interactions, limiting the space, and rotation of play materials. Guidelines for book selection and for creating inclusive play groups developed in these studies can be used to facilitate the ease in administering such an intervention in a kindergarten setting. Prior to using these strategies, the class environment is analyzed to determine the level and quality of exposure to persons with disabilities that is present. The Inventory of Disability Representation (Favazza and Odom, 1997) was designed for this purpose, allowing the teacher to examine his/her own class environment. When examining 95 preschool and kindergarten classes, Favazza, Kumar, and Phillipsen (1996) found that classes typically do not have visual representation of persons with disabilities in class displays, books, or curriculum. This simple first step could provide teachers with ideas about materials that could be incorporated into the class setting to raise the awareness level about individuals with disabilities.

Summary

Our perceptions about and attitudes toward individuals with disabilities are formed at a very early age. And, without interventions designed to promote acceptance at the age when attitudes are formed, these early perceptions are likely to be negative as well as stable. The success of inclusive placements may depend, in part, on the acceptance of children with disabilities by typically developing children. Teachers can create more accepting environments using these naturalistic and economical strategies.

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Developing Collaborative Partnerships in Higher Education

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In response to a request from the Department of Elementary and Secondary Education of the State of Missouri that Harris-Stowe State College (HSSC) submitted a proposal and received funding to develop collaborative preservice teacher education preparation to support inclusive educational efforts and to prepare teachers to work together to meet the learning needs of all students.

Although the philosophy of the special education program reflects the theme of the knowledge base of the HSSC Teacher Education Department, namely "Teachers for a Diverse Society," collaborative activities which occurred in the department were primarily formal. These activities included course approval, and changes or deletions which were proposed by special educators and routinely passed by members of the Teacher Education Committee and/or the Teacher Education Department. Seldom did these meetings specifically address the issues of collaborative and inclusive education and rarely would general and special education faculty discuss such matters informally. Therefore, it appeared that even in a small department certain barriers existed which hindered the development of collaboration.

Because department and committee meetings seldom addressed the issues of inclusive and collaborative education, it appeared that additional activities would be necessary to eliminate inherent institutional barriers to the development of inclusive educational practice. Therefore, we hypothesized that the following activities would be helpful in eliminating these barriers:

1. Provide an inservice to the Teacher Education Department on inclusion knowledge, strategies, and processes, that facilitate and support inclusive education.
2. Schedule a faculty retreat to develop common knowledge and terminology and collaboration between department faculty that would assist in the reconfiguration of preservice regular and special education courses.
3. Survey faculty and students with regard to their knowledge and beliefs about inclusion.
4. Provide a module on inclusion to regular education students in a course which has traditionally not offered inclusion content and solicit feedback.

In order to determine what faculty and students knew and what attitudes they possessed about inclusion, the Inclusion Knowledge and Self-Report Inventory (IKSRI) was administered before proceeding with inclusion activities. The inventory consisted of the following three components:

1. Demographic characteristics of the respondents
2. Knowledge and concepts about PL-94-142, IDEA, mainstreaming, inclusion, full inclusion, and collaboration.
3. Beliefs about inclusive educational practice.

For faculty, participation at the Institute for Inclusive Education and the faculty retreat provided a variety of sources of knowledge and the opportunity to begin the process of reconfiguring the preservice curriculum. In addition, the information acquired from students during the student pilot and the student pilot feedback session near the end of the semester provided important data for faculty to consider in beginning the process of reconfiguration.

An unexpected result occurred when we found that faculty and student respondents possessed a high degree of knowledge and held favorable beliefs about inclusion. That our respondents held favorable opinions about inclusion was not expected because it had been shown in the literature that most respondents thought children with learning problems should be placed in special class (Elam & Rose, 1995). Additionally, we were successful in initiating the process of examining our preservice curriculum to better prepare future teachers to meet the needs of all students. Finally, like others (Dice, 1995; Englert, Tarrant, & Mariage, 1992; Goodlad & Lovitt, 1993; John, 1992; Paul, Duchnowski, & Danforth, 1993) who believe teacher preparation programs in higher education must model the reform and restructuring demands in schools, we found that both our faculty and students were willing to embrace this challenge.

Increasingly, regular educators are being asked to meet the learning and social needs of culturally diverse, at risk, and mildly disabled learners. Educators at all levels must learn new skills and play new roles if they are to cope with the challenges that lie ahead. Institutions of higher education must first model and assist future teacher to prepare for the learning needs of the students they will encounter. The need for collaboration between general and special education faculty is vital to the development of programs that prepare future teachers to meet the needs of all students.

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A Systemic Approach To Special Education

Karl J. Skaarbrevik

The purpose of this paper is to present a model for analyzing different impacts upon the quality of special education and to present some findings from using the model in a study of special education in Norway. The basic idea is that the quality of the programs are the result of an interaction between several factors associated with the national policy, the community, the school as an organization, and the students. My approach is based on system theory as this is delineated by among others Miller (1978). According to this theoretical view the school as an organization can be understood as a composite of several subsystems identified by the particular processes they carry out within the organization. Associated with these processes are related structures that can be understood as enduring characteristics of an organization that guide and regulate the processes. The student can be regarded as an open system on its own that is influenced by as well as upon the processes.

In our study we have identified the following systems and subsystems that have generated variables that might have an influence upon special education.

The Community

We have included a variable that indicates *the centrality* of the municipality in relation to major center that can provide different kinds of service and can indicate geographical access to adequate medical, psychological, and educational services. In addition we have included *resources* available for special education or other support per student and *school size*.

The Didactic Subsystem

This subsystem within the school includes conditions associated with teaching . We have included the following variables: *grade level, number of students in the class, percentage of lessons spent by the student in class without assistance from another teacher or assistant, satisfactory supplies of teaching materials, and the presence of physical restrictions or problems within the school building.*

The Formal Subsystem

This subsystem and its related processes and structures constitute the apparatus established to secure that certain objectives are carried out. For instance teachers and administrative persons with relevant qualifications and experience, administrative routines related to teaching, as well as cooperation with parents and external agencies. The following variables were included: The presence of *resource teams, further education in special education* by the teacher responsible for the program, and the *teachers experience* in special education over the last 5 years.

The Support Subsystem

This is what Miller (1978) call an "outwardly dispersed subsystem" and represent a communication with a subsystem that is not part of the school system. We have included three variables associated with the support system: Benefit from the *assistance from the school psychological services* in the municipality, benefit from the *national resource centers in special education,* and the over all benefit from *all external agencies* the schools or parents have consulted.

The Students

Finally we have information on the students disabilities. The school psychological services were asked to rate the students on 14 different problem categories or handicaps. These were reduced to 7 categories by the use of factor analysis. However, because of the small number of subjects with hearing and visual impairment these two conditions were grouped together, and this resulted in the following 6 categories: *Sensory impaired, speech and articulation problems, mental retardation, physical and medical handicaps, behavioral disorder, and academic problems* including problems with reading, writing, and arithmetic.

As indicators of the *quality* of the educational programs I have adopted two main principles laid down by the legislators in Norway. First that the educational programs of the handicapped should be of *equal value* compared to the rest of the students in the municipality. Second that the program should be *adequate* to the educational needs of the students. Indicators of what programs that could be classified as of equal value or adequate were obtained from a study of the document that described these principles, and included in a definition of the principles. The quality of the programs according to these principles were independently evaluated by the school psychological services and the teachers, and grouped into dichotomized variables for statistical analysis.

Data was collected on a random sample of about 660 students in grades 1 through 9 from 500 schools in 167 municipalities in Norway. Questionnaires about the students and their programs were filled out by their teachers and the school psychological services. Additional information was obtained from the school principals and national statistics.

For each of the subsystems described above and the community variables, separate logistic regression analysis were carried out. Equality and adequateness of programs were used as dependent variables. The independent variables from each subsystem that contributed significantly to the programs being equal or adequate, were then used in the final analysis.

When equality of programs was evaluated by the school psychological services, attending elementary grades (1 through 6th grade) vs. attending junior high school (7 through 9th grade) discriminated between those who received an equal program or not, in favour of the lower grades. When equality of programs was evaluated by the teachers, school size, unavailability of teaching materials, and the presence of sensory, speech or language impairments in the students discriminated between those who received an equal program or not. It is of interest that *the presence* of these handicaps contributed to a more positive evaluation of the equality of the programs by the teachers.

When the adequateness of the programs evaluated by the school psychological services were used as the dependent variable, it was found that students attending junior high school, with academic problems (included reading, writing, and arithmetic), and with behavioral disorders less often received adequate programs than students in the lower grades and without those handicaps. When the same variable was evaluated by the teachers, (attending junior high school, a large class, lack of teaching materials, little or no benefit from the assistance of the school psychological service, and that the students in question had behavioral problems) contributed to less adequate programs.

By using a system theoretical approach I have tried to identify variables that contribute to equal and adequate programs in special education. When this was evaluated by the school psychological services most problems associated with providing such programs were related to students with behavioral and academic problems in junior high school. When evaluated by the teachers these variables were supplemented by attending large classes in general, lack of teaching materials, and of beneficial assistance from the school psychological services.

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Formative Rhythmics

Yoshio Tamano, Ph.D.

Theory of Formative Rhythmics

Definition of Formative Rhythmics

"Formative rhythmics" is a method for making children learn formative expression using as media rhythmical melody and/or rhythmical verbal expressions represented by all kinds of forms. In Formative Rhythmic instruction, therefore, how to express formatively using children's own bodies as well as how to draw points, lines, and surfaces, and how to paint are taught.

Principles of "Formative Rhythmics"

Formative expression is a kind of work. And this work is a movement carried out in the framework of time and space. This movement always constitutes rhythms in time and space. Children are able to learn fundamental functions of formative expression through the formative learning which makes children recognize, feel, and experience these rhythms.

Background Theories Supporting Formative Rhythmics

- Rhythmic Theory of Emile Dalcroze
- Liriya's Theory
- "Human beings intentionally form voluntary movements."
- Algorithmic Learning Method in formative education. (by Tamano)

On the basis of scientific theories and methods, formative rhythmic teaching aims at:

- helping a child have good foundation in formative functions.
- facilitating integration of sensory-motor and perceptual-motor in the gross and fine motor areas.

- helping the child grow and develop cognitive abilities rather than teaching him/her skills in fine arts.

Teaching Forms of "Formative Rhythmics"

i. Fine motor skills

a. "Rhythmic Formation" method (basic studies for drawing points to surfaces—30 tasks, 17 methods and 510 steps)

b. "Singing Formation" (algorithmic learning method in painting)

c. "Creative Formation" method (three dimensional formation with craft paper.)

ii. Gross motor skills ---Sensory and perceptual integration in movements

Application of Formative Rhythmic Education

Targets for Formative rhythmic education are children with mental retardation and those with learning disabilities. At present children with autism, those with minimal brain damage, those with Down syndrome, and mentally retarded children with single case are receiving this Formative rhythmic education. Some children with physical handicap such as polio after effects are also taught using this method. The instruction of such children starts with moving their thumbs and fingers and then holding a crayon. Although the earlier a possible learning produces, the most noticeable results, we can expect some favorable result even if the instruction is given at any later developmental stage. We have several cases of children with Down's syndrome who have been instructed in the Formative Rhythmic programs since they were two or three months old. But this program can be applied to any person at any age level. The program states as one its goals that a child's competencies developed through early program training should enhance direct and indirect potential skills later in life. Recently, the program has also been implemented for rehabilitation of the aged and for the prevention of dementia.

Methodology of Formative Rhythmics

(1) "Rhythmic Formation" Method

(2) "Singing formation"

(3) Gross motor method

Listen to the Children

Andrea Henderson

I would like to describe a facilitative method which I devised in 1987. My aim was to allow the children to do as much of their own creative work as possible. It was necessary, I thought, to transfer the load of thinking from the teacher's shoulders to that of the children. I was tired of writing out worksheet after worksheet, scratching my head for ideas when the children had far better ideas than I could ever dream up, and I wanted to challenge my class and see what they were capable of producing for themselves.

I had been teaching at a top school in South Africa for about ten years, first teaching the 9 year olds and then moving up to teach 10 year olds. This method is better suited to the slightly older child because the pupils are more developed intellectually and are better able to cope with the demands of the lessons. I therefore suggest that this method be used in Grade 4 (Standard II), although I have used it this year in Grades 1, 2 and 3 with reasonable success.

I call this paper " Listen to the Children" because I made a concerted effort to listen to their ideas. This was most rewarding, as I discovered that they had innovative ways of looking at things, and were spontaneously creative. Consequently, I often had to allow them extra time to finish their projects, so great was their dedication. Their engagement with their tasks resulted in superb quality of work.

The Grade 4 class I taught was very gifted. I started with Mathematics. Instead of putting reams of sums on the board or on the worksheets for the children to complete, I decided to teach the topic first and once the children understood how to do the sums, I would put three examples on the board and then ask them to make up their own sums. For example, when I taught in addition, I first discussed how to get the answers, and these examples were written on the board and then I asked the children to devise their own sums. The outcome was quite startling. Most of the children constructed the most advanced and complicated sums, anticipating work in higher standards. Other children stuck to simple sums and did not venture out at all. One could immediately discern who was gifted in the area of mathematics and who struggled even with simple addition sums. I would go around the class helping where necessary and marking the books as the children worked. It is vitally important to collect all unmarked work.

It was easy to place the children into ability groups, where they produced material suited to their own level. The advantage of this type of lesson is that your weak pupil will not feel left out, and will have the satisfaction of a good result.

More recently I have taught the children to use their calculators in order to mark their own work. Then my load was considerably reduced as I needed only to monitor their progress. For example, an average of 36 x 10 sums would otherwise have had to be checked, with every sum being different. Spot checks ensured that each child's accomplishment was authentic. Every now and again one needs to emphasize that cheating is unacceptable! 98% of the time the children respond positively to this method of marking.

Although initially I used this method for the whole year of 1987, I would advise the teacher to alternate this method with worksheets, the text book and putting up work on the board. It is a demanding task for both pupil and teacher alike to maintain purely pupil-created work.

I then started to use this method in other subjects, too. In Geography when doing maps of the classroom, the children came up with ideas of designing their own classroom and school.

Some make schools on boats, in space ships, some designed the most exotic schools with fun facilities adjacent to the classrooms, so that they could take a break and jump on the trampoline! I have never seen so many different designs – every one of the 36 boys in the class designed something different.

In Science, when the children asked if they could bring pets to school, I allowed one pet per week. With this particular pet as the focus, the class volunteered information, and from the key words on the board, they could write a story or few sentences, or draw and label a picture. When doing weeds we went outside to find weeds, picked them and then came back to the class and drew them and wrote about them in our books.

This method was also used when teaching English and Afrikaans grammar. After learning, for example, punctuation at the beginning of Grade 4, I got the children to construct their own sentences where they had to use full stops, capital letters, question marks, exclamation marks, etc. Initially they found this very difficult, but once we had used the method for the first term, they were used to doing their own work.

At present, I am assisting teachers in schools in the townships with Mathematics and often do demonstration lessons where I will implement this method. For example, in a Grade 2 class I recently asked the children to see how many sums they could make with an answer of 7. I spent 25 minutes allowing them to come up to the board and write their sums down. Once they had done the addition sums, I suggested subtraction. The class was able to come up with about 24 sums. We cleaned the board and wrote the number 8 down. Now the pupils had to do their own sums in their books where the answer was 8.

In conclusion, I know that teachers do occasionally use this methodology, but I am of the opinion that we need to use it more extensively. We should consciously strive to inculcate a climate of self-elicited ideas. The children benefit in two ways: they experience the joy of creative thought, and consequently gain self-confidence and self-esteem.

Tracking Techniques Used In The Remedial Teaching Of Writing

Nils Sovik

Introduction

Handwriting is a tool-using skill that is bound to graphic models and related movement patterns. If one observes a child who can write fluently, it is apparent that his or her writing is produced by an integrated pattern of coordinated movements subject to visual monitoring and sensory-motor feedback-control. However, many children have problems in developing skilled writing movements. It is difficult for them to copy or write separate letters or words accurately and with a satisfactory speed. Such children often have *dysgraphia*. The condition points to the fact that there are children who show discrepant writing, compared to their other academic performances, where commonly accepted kinds of causes cannot always be found (Brenner et al., 1967; Søvik, 1984; Søvik et al., 1986).

Remedial methods should be developed to improve the learning conditions for dysgraphic children. I have found the cybernetic theory useful in improving handwriting instruction for such pupils. According to this closed-loop theory, the principle of *feedback* plays an important role in the performance of the skills, e.g. writing (Adams, 1976; Smith and Smith, 1991).

When pupils learn to write they usually use static models, i.e., they *trace* the model by writing directly on it, once it has been presented. However, if pupils follow immediately in the trace of a dynamic model during its presentation, the behavior is called *tracking* or *dynamic imitation* (Søvik, 1979, 1991). Much of the handwriting instruction at school is also based on the principle of *copying* the writing models. Research has indicated that the dynamic presentations of the copying models are preferred to static ones (Søvik, 1979; Søvik and Arntzen, 1992). When a pupil is performing a dynamic tracking task it is often done in cooperation with another person, a learning/instruction system which is called *social tracking*. This kind of tracking means real-time measurement of behavioral interactions between individuals. It covers the meaning of interactional processes taking place when two people are working together on the same task.

Application of the Social Tracking Principle in Remedial Writing

I have conducted a series of studies the past 20 years on special training programmes based on the principle of social tracking for the remedial instruction of dysgraphic pupils. The main purpose of these studies has been to examine the effects of these programmes on the parameters (accuracy, speed, rhythm) of subjects' copying and writing.

In the early studies, the individual training of the student was carried out by means of the following equipment: a special writing desk with a glass plate on which the student's writing paper was taped; an ordinary table on which an overhead projector was located and used by the instructor to present dynamic writing models; and a white screen (5 ft. x 5 ft.) placed behind the instructor's desk (on which his writing signals could be projected by means of the overhead optic devise). Furthermore, there were two Philips plumbecum LDH 150 cameras: the first one transferred the projected writing models from screen via a related cord system to a set of optic instruments (a TV-monitor and a Leitz episcope combined with a lens system) placed on the floor below the student's desk; the second one was placed behind and above the student's desk to convey pictures of his tracking of the models, via a related cord system, to a 12 in. TV-monitor placed on the instructor's desk (feedback). By means of this design it was possible to extend experimentally the feedback-loops in social tracking related to the graphic behavior of the instructor and the student. In the later studies, when a more advanced experimental set-up was available (a combination of optic devises, CCTV, a microcomputer, and related software) (cf. Søvik, 1991), one could more easily interfere with signals going through the system, and also improve the measurement procedure.

In most of the experiments, treatment sessions with social tracking and/or testing of students' copying and writing skills (pre- and post-tests) were done. Pre-test/post-test control group designs with random assignment were applied for the organization of the greater part of the studies. In many of the studies students were stratified on age (nine or twelve years old) and writing performance (regular vs. dysgraphic students). Owing to space consideration, examples of the writing exercises used in the training or experimental programmes cannot be reviewed here. The control group was not supposed to have any social tracking programme, but both groups went through the pre- and post-test procedure.

Three dependent measures were used as criteria for the studies reviewed in the present paper: (1) *accuracy* of the writing product; (2) *writing speed*, scored directly by the computer; and (3) *writing rhythm* or *smoothness* in writing. Whereas writing accuracy (legibility) and speed were taken into account in all of the reviewed studies, writing rhythm was also used as a criterion in the later studies.

Results and Conclusions

As to the empirical findings of our tracking studies, it can be stated that the training programmes always improved students' copying and writing performances. In most cases the results were significant in favor of the social tracking program. The trends were the same both for the regular and the dysgraphic pupils, but the effects of the programmes were stronger on the dysgraphic learners (Søvik, 1984; Søvik and Arntzen, 1992; Søvik et al., 1986;). In two of the studies the social tracking technique was compared to computer-assisted-instruction which indicated that the social tracking method seemed to surpass the comparable method with regard to *accuracy*. It should be noted that the increase of pupils' accuracy scores in copying and writing was observed without any trade-off in writing speed or rhythm.

Concerning writing *speed* and *rhythm*, the social tracking treatment did not seem to have a clear, positive impact on them. The training programs, however, did not disfavor the two measures, on the contrary, in some cases the majority of pupils benefited from the tracking method regarding speed and smoothness. It remains to be studied, though, whether a tracking program paying more attention to the speed factor will affect significantly the speed-scores in the post-tests.

Studies carried out to test the effects of the social tracking techniques indicated that the copying and writing performances of regular pupils were always better in comparison with those of dysgraphic pupils (Søvik et al., 1989). By analyzing the writing performances of the two groups one has found that the movement characteristics of the various words being used as items in the tests seem to play an important role for the differences in general writing performances between the two groups of pupils. Thus, it seems reasonable to conclude that the inferiority of the dysgraphic children compared to the regular learners is also related to the writing models being used in functional writing.

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Asmuyao Community School: Intervention Strategy for At- Risk High School Students

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It has been proven in research studies that early intervention programs do benefit children with disabilities. The old adage "its easier to cure or remediate a problem if it's caught at any early stage."

> Early intervention programs can make a significant difference in the developmental status of young children and can do so more rapidly than later remedial efforts after a child has entered elementary school. Results from early childhood programs for disadvantaged children and a growing body of literature on programs for handicapped infants and preschoolers document the benefits of early childhood special education programs. Intervention can reduce the limitation a handicapping conditions imposes upon a child's ability to learn from and interact with the environment. Early education and training also can minimize possibilities that a child will develop secondary disabilities and can increase the chances that developmental skills will be acquired when they otherwise might be delayed or simply not learned. (Peterson, 1987)

The educational reform movement is still building momentum and fruition of that movement will probably be experienced and seen in the next few years. The task force report in 1983 entitled "A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform." stated that:

- The quality of teaching in public school is inadequate
- Secondary schools offer too many electives that are not part of the traditional academic curricula

- Seventy percent of high school students require only one year of math and science
- United States students do not match up to students from other industrialized nations
- Colleges and universities are becoming less selective, often focusing more on enrollment than quality students (Smith, Price and Marsh II, 1986).

Although early intervention programs have helped numerous children with special needs or who are at risk, many adolescents continue to enter high school with debilitating learning or behavioral problems (Mercer and Mercer, 1989).

These youngsters enter high school lacking the very basic skill foundations of reading, mathematics and communication. Students who supposedly made it to the secondary schools have fallen through the cracks so to speak.

The dramatic increase in high school graduation requirements, as a result of the educational reform movement, of a more stringent mathematics, foreign language, science, English and history makes it more difficult for the student to graduate. The at risk, learning and behavior problem students encounter the dilemma of lacking credits in their last year of school. This paper will describe the Asmuyao Community School (a more or less failed-saved program) an intervention program used in meeting the needs of at-risk high school students. Asmuyao Community School was established in the early nineties as a result of number of at risk students encountered in the high schools.

Program Philosophy

Asmuyao Community School's philosophy is no different from the special education programs overall philosophy in that development of an individual's functional capacity in all areas of life to the fullest extent possible and be productive and contributing member in a given society or community is paramount. Every individual in the program is given that opportunity to earn the necessary credits lacking and graduate with their peers so that they can be gainfully employed and be productive citizens in the community.

Program Goals

- To reduce the number of at-risk drop out
- To build a sense of self-worth, trust, independence and accomplishment
- To promote education as a life-long process, which promotes the capacity for individuals to be self supporting and of service to the community.
- To promote a team effort between parents and children in a home environment
- To function at the educational level as friends and/or facilitators in assisting individuals to further their education.

Program Curriculum

The Asmuyao Curriculum is designed to provide individualized instruction, according to the personal needs of each student. The success of each student will depend upon completion of the following:

Grades K-5

Language Arts, Mathematics, Social Studies, Science, Music, Art, Physical Education, Health and Chamorro - a native language.

Grade 6-8

Language Arts, Mathematics, Social Studies, Science, Health, Physical Education, Music, Art and Chamorro and a 4-9 week exploratory in Home Economics, Industrial Arts, and Career Education.

Grade 9-12

A total of 23 credits in the following subject areas: 4 English, 3 Math, 4 Social Studies, 3 Science, 2 Physical, 1 Health, 1 Chamorro, and 5 Electives.

The curriculum is designed to meet qualifications set by the Guam Public School System. The program has been acknowledged by Guam Public School System and is developed to add flexibility as well as creativity to meet individual needs. Assignments are initiated and implemented using strategies most comfortable to both students and parents.

Program Staff

Asmuyao Community School has a director and three instructors who are all full time faculty with the Department of Education. Parents and other family members are also used by Asmuyao to assist in home tutoring. Instructors work with the at risk students after their normal teaching duties. Two hours a day - five days a week are spent teaching the necessary courses to the special needs/at risk students.

Conclusion

Out of 1,037 graduating students from five high schools on Guam, eighty five students were assisted or served by the Asmuyao Community School for school year 1995-1996. These eighty five at risk students were able to graduate with their class. Since the inception of the community school in the nineties, graduation rates of students in the various high schools of the Department of Education have increased by more that sixty percent last year.

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Teaching Self-Management to Students with Diverse Needs: A Culturally-Relevant Training Video

Dennis McDougall, Ed.D & Mary Anne Prater, Ed.D.

The progressive inclusion of individuals with diverse needs and disabilities in general education classes and research findings indicate that both pre-service and in-service teachers need better preparation in order to accommodate such learners. Surveys of first-year and veteran teachers, and principals confirm the need for such preparation, particularly in the areas of academic modifications and social behavior management. Traditionally, pre- and in-service teacher education programs have restricted training in accommodating the needs of diverse or challenged learners to teachers in specialty fields (i.e., special education) when, in fact, such skills in managing academic and social behaviors are beneficial–or perhaps essential–for all teachers.

The importance of behavioral self-management (BSM) has been documented thoroughly in educational literature. Students with exceptional needs, however, often lack BSM skills and require systematic training to (a) become more self-reliant, (b) reduce their dependence on adults, and (c) gain more control over their own actions, learning, and lives. Fortunately, numerous investigators have demonstrated that teachers–when prepared–can train students who are at-risk for academic and social failure to use BSM components such as self-monitoring, self-instruction, self-graphing, self-evaluation, self-administration of reinforcement, and self-determination of reinforcement, to regulate their own behaviors and to decrease reliance on adults and external agents (see Hughes, Korinek, & Gorman, 1991; Nelson, Smith, Young, & Dodd, 1991; Reid, 1996; Weber, Scheuermann, McCall, & Coleman, 1993; for BSM reviews, definitions, and theories). In addition, BSM components are adaptable and have improved student outcomes when combined with audio cues, sequenced picture prompts, videotape modeling, and skills strategy training (McDougall & Brady, in press). Although self-management components are portable and have the potential to promote generalization across settings, "the promise of self-management to assist transition to mainstream settings remains unfulfilled" (Hughes, Ruhl, & Misra, 1989, p. 259).

Most BSM studies to date have targeted: (a) students with disabilities in settings other than general education, such as self-contained classes and resource rooms; or (b) students without disabilities in general education settings (see Fantuzzo, Rohrbeck, & Azar, 1987, for a review of 34 studies). The former BSM studies have targeted students with various disabilities including behavior disorders, learning disabilities, mental retardation, autism, and hyperactivity, and have improved various outcomes such as spelling, math calculations, homework completion, class transitions, creative writing, and social skills (McDougall & Brady, in press).

Recently, inclusion's impact on general educators and BSM's documented effectiveness, adaptability, and portability have stimulated researchers to conduct BSM studies of students with disabilities in general education classrooms. These studies have demonstrated favorable outcomes which include improvements in: math fluency and engaged academic time (McDougall & Brady, in press); vocabulary test scores, math test scores, and problem completion (Hogan & Prater, 1993; Prater, Hogan, & Miller, 1992); and reading comprehension (Edwards, Salent, Howard, Brougher, & McLaughlin, 1995). Thus, academic growth can occur when teachers–who are prepared–train and encourage students with disabilities to apply BSM directly in general education classes, rather than relying on more traditional out-of-class training and hoping for generalization.

Given underuse of BSM as a tool to promote integration of students with disabilities in general education settings, the first author developed a BSM training video and packet for use by and with pre-service and in-service teachers (McDougall, 1996a). The project was funded by a grant (US $900) from the Office of Faculty Development and Academic Support at the University of Hawaii (UH). Assistance in filming and in completing Macintosh-based video editing and graphics were provided by Ian Farrell and UH Information Technology Services. The long-term goal of this project is to improve teachers' capacity to accommodate the needs of students with diverse needs. More precisely, this projects aims to increase the frequency and quality of teachers' attempts *in their own general education classrooms* to train students with disabilities to use "state-of-the-art" self-management procedures. Further objectives of this project are (a) to produce video vignettes, and a corresponding training packet, which demonstrate state-of-the-art BSM training procedures; (b) to disseminate the BSM training video for use by pre-service and in-service teachers in the State of Hawaii; and (c) to further disseminate, internationally, the BSM training video and a description of the development process to teachers and teacher trainers (McDougall, 1996b).

The video and training packet incorporate features to enhance the likelihood of use by teachers, teacher trainers, and other consumers–relevance, credibility, ease of use, and access. The trainers, students, and tasks depicted in most of the vignettes were selected to reflect the ethnic and racial diversity of Hawaiian students and staff. The first trainer was Portuguese-Hawaiian, the second trainer was Caucasian, and the third-grade student was Korean-Hawaiian. One task depicted a student orally spelling Hawaiian words. These features were critical because most training videos are produced on "the mainland" (contiguous United States), lack cultural relevance for Hawaiians, and sometime the "message is lost via the messenger." Ease of use and access were assured by (a) including multiple, but brief BSM training examples (vignettes), (b) inserting graphics which specified a step-by-step training process, (c) developing a corresponding training packet for use while watching the video, (d) including actual sample BSM forms for use by students, and (e) providing free copies of the video and training packet to numerous pre-service teachers, teacher educators, in-service teachers, and teacher consultants in the State of Hawaii. The BSM video continues to be disseminated throughout Hawaii and dissemination efforts have been initiated on the mainland and internationally. In the near future, a BSM video for training teenagers and secondary students will be developed with funds generated from the sale of the current video.

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Diagnosis and Remediation of Early Reading Difficulties

John R. Kirby, Ph.D. & Cheryl D. Foxcroft, Ph.D.

Learning to read is perhaps the most important task which children must master in the early years of school; failure to master reading has consequences across the curriculum, and is a predictor of many other social and academic difficulties (Stanovich, 1988). In spite of its importance, and the considerable resources devoted to education, many children have great difficulty in mastering reading. Some of these children have *reading disabilities*, that is, impairments in one or more cognitive processes that make the acquisition of reading very difficult. Others, perhaps greater in number, may be said to have *reading problems* (Kirby & Williams, 1991), less specific difficulties which may stem partly from home backgrounds and instruction which are less than optimal, interacting with cognitive weaknesses to produce characteristics similar to those of children with disabilities (Siegel, 1992). Teaching children to read is made more difficult by the cultural, linguistic, and socioeconomic heterogeneity of many classrooms, especially as found in the developing world. We illustrate this situation with respect to the post-apartheid situation in South Africa.

Our approach to understanding reading and reading problems has three components: a comprehensive theory of general intellectual competence, specific theories of critical achievement tasks and their development (such as word-level reading, or reading comprehension), and a commitment to linking theory and practice, diagnosis and treatment (Kirby & Williams, 1991). The first component is provided by the PASS (for Planning, Attention, Simultaneous and Successive processing) theory of intelligence (Das, Naglieri, & Kirby, 1994). The theory of general intellectual competence provides a frame within which the cognitive processes associated with reading take place, though it does not detail the nature of those reading processes. Some causes of reading problems may stem from general processes; for example, we have shown that poor successive processing (the ability to maintain information in temporal order) is a characteristic of poor readers (Kirby, Booth, & Das, 1996). Most existing work in reading disabilities is based upon the use of IQ tests which have never had an adequate theoretical rationale, are now quite inconsistent with theoretical developments, and are not relevant to the diagnosis of reading disabilities (Siegel, 1992). The PASS theory provides a means for linking theories of intelligence (as opposed to IQ), neuropsychology, and learning problems.

The second component, specific theories of reading, comes from the work of many researchers (e.g., Adams, 1990; Goswami & Bryant, 1991; Kirby, Martinussen, & Beggs, 1996; Wagner, Torgesen, & Rashotte, 1994). We have developed a causal structure model of the processes involved in early reading, showing that successive processing (represented by the components naming speed and memory) contributes to the development of phonological processing skills (in rhyming, synthesis, and analysis) and letter knowledge; and these act through phonological analysis to affect word reading skills (Kirby, Martinussen, & Beggs, 1996). We have also related the development of these skills to family literacy practices (Kirby & Hogan, 1997).

The third component of our approach is theory-based remediation (e.g., Kirby, Martinussen, & Das, 1996). We have developed remedial techniques (termed PREP, for PASS Reading Enhancement Program) which integrate training at the general and specific cognitive process levels (Das, Mishra, & Poole, 1995; Kirby, Martinussen, & Das, 1996). These techniques have features in common with other remedial approaches (e.g., Ball & Blachman, 1991), but place greater stress upon successive processing. Each remedial task proceeds from a "global" component with no reading content to a "bridging" component involving reading content. Applications of the PREP techniques with poor readers and children with reading disabilities have been successful (Boden & Kirby, 1995; Das, et al., 1995; Das, et al., 1996).

The final section of the paper concerns our adaptation of the diagnostic and remedial procedures for use in South Africa, taking into account its multilingual, multicultural context. Foxcroft (1994; Foxcroft, Shillington, & Collier, 1996) has begun to investigate the relationships between several group diagnostic tests and the PASS constructs. Further diagnostic and remedial studies are planned.

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Resistance and Acceptance: Educator Attitudes Toward Inclusion[1]

Judy L. Lupart, Ph.D., Gary Bunch, Ph.D., & Margie Brown, Ph. D.

A growing number of educators, parents, and advocacy groups are challenging traditional "dual systems" of education in which students are divided into regular and special education categories. Leading proponents of this contemporary movement want to see the development of an effective, unified system of service delivery for all students, in which inclusive education practice promotes the full development of learning potential of all students (Stainback, Stainback, & Bunch, 1989; Andrews & Lupart, 1993). In contrast, concern has been voiced, by educators in particular, over the availability of human physical resources and associated financial implications of inclusive systems (Fuchs & Fuchs, 1994; Kauffman & Hallahan, 1995) . Whether regular classroom teachers believe they have the responsibility and ability to teach children with special needs is being debated currently, though it is known that attitude is a critical factor associated with the issue (Bunch, 1992).

This study investigated attitudes of Canadian educators toward inclusion of all learners in regular classrooms using survey techniques and follow-up interviews to probe the origin of attitude formation in this area. The term inclusion was used to indicate full time general education class placement, and to differentiate it from integration and mainstreaming; terms associated with part time and full time regular class placement. The extent, quality, and source of educator support for and concern regarding inclusion and the relationship to school system service delivery (i.e., traditional dual versus inclusive systems) specifically were explored.

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The *Educator Opinion Questionnaire* (EOQ) (Bunch, 1992) was employed to survey educator attitudes to inclusion and was distributed to over 1500 elementary and secondary level educators and 750 teacher candidates across the Western provinces, Ontario, and the Atlantic provinces. The EOQ comprises 70 items drawn from a review of relevant literature, a review of existing survey instruments in the area, interviews with school personnel, parents, advocates for inclusion, and individuals with disabilities. The final page of the EOQ provided opportunity for respondents to offer spontaneous written comments. Some 2250 surveys were distributed in cooperating schools with a return rate of 1492 or 67 per cent, with voluntary comments offered by 345 survey respondents.

Individual, in-depth interviews of initial sample volunteers followed survey distribution The total number of interviews was 156, with regular classroom teachers, special education resource teachers, special education class teachers, and administrators at both the elementary and secondary levels in both traditionally and inclusively structured systems participating. Qualitative methods were used to analyze the interview data, which ultimately proved to be the richest source of information and direction.

The collective findings indicated that educator attitudes toward inclusion fell into two main areas. First, educators expressed their concerns regarding work load and effect of inclusion on regular classroom teachers, adequacy of preservice and inservice professional development, and administrator support for teachers including students. A second predominant theme was centered on positive beliefs regarding inclusion and teacher ability to deal with it. Generally positive attitudes were found regarding educator ability to accept primary responsibility for included students, the ability of general class teachers and resource teachers to work collaboratively, and effect of inclusion on both regular and included students across social and academic domains, particularly the social.

A central interest of the project was the interpretation of findings in terms of implications for government, school systems, support/advocacy organizations, and faculties of education. Research partners representing schools systems across Canada, provincial ministries of education, the Canadian Teachers' Association, the Canadian Association of Community Living, the Canadian Council for Exceptional Children and the Centre for Integrated Education and Community, participated fully in drawing out implications.

For government, implications included consideration of a "Ministry of the Child" to bring together policies and resources presently spread over a number of ministries in each province, the issue of right to inclusive placement, the need for adequate funding when students are included, the manner in which inclusive practice alters the role of educators, stimulation of school - family collaboration, and clarification of government policies on inclusion.

Implications for school systems focused on consideration of right to inclusive placement, clarification of system policies toward inclusion, need to prepare the system for increased placement of students with challenges in general education classrooms, leadership, and professional preparation.

Support/advocacy agencies were seen to have valuable roles within inclusion. Direct implications centered on the issue of child rights, the need for collaborative relationships with educators in support of families, provision of resources, and research into the nature and effect of inclusion.

Faculties of education were seen to have a central role to play in promoting collaborative relationships. A need for the development of preservice courses and other activities focused on equity in educational provision for all groups in society, the development of teacher competency for inclusive education, and practicum experience in inclusive settings were highlighted. Development of model programs, collaboration with school systems and teacher federations on inservice professional development, development of resources, and initiation of active research agenda around inclusive education were also seen as appropriate activities for faculties.

A final, overall implication was that the movement toward inclusive education was a continuing movement and one which challenged government and educational models based on separate settings for many special needs students. Findings of this study strongly suggested that the structures of the past cannot be applied effectively to societal reconceptualizations of education for students with challenging needs. Positive steps must be taken now to assist the front-line general class teacher who bears the greatest responsibility for and burden of response. Canadian educators believe inclusive education to be educationally sound practice, to be within the competencies of supported general class teachers, and to be beneficial to all students. Given this basic attitude set, significant progress in inclusive practice should be possible once support needs are addressed. Much can be done in this direction without additional expenditure of funds if government, school systems, support/advocacy agencies and faculties of education work collaboratively and creatively.

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Developing Effective School To Work Model Programs for Individuals with Autism Spectrum Disorders

H. Travis Fishbein, Ed.D

Background

Since 1966, League School of Boston (located in Boston, Massachusetts, U.S.A.) has been devoted to the singular purpose of educating Individuals with Autism Spectrum Disorders. During these 30 years we have developed specialized curriculum, interventions, and behavioral strategies to enable this population to maximize their educational and social potentials. In recent years, the area of Vocational Transition (school to work) has been emphasized as a way of enabling students to become gainfully employed, socially aware functioning adults.

Many practitioners fail to understand that simply because children appear to fall within the same broad diagnostic categories, that there are major differences in neurology, emotional and social development, and perception of the environment. Simply being labeled "autistic" has no assurance that the same medications, behavioral approaches, curriculum, etc. will be effective. Indeed, the research indicates that there are great variances in learning styles and learning abilities (Frith, 1991)

League School of Boston has provided services to children with Autism Spectrum Disorders from the United States , England, Saudi Arabia. Japan, US Virgin Islands, Kuwait, Israel Argentina, Ecuador, Austria, and Canada. We have designed educational, vocational, preschool, and adult service programs for individuals with severe through mild forms of autism by managing service delivery through the use of integrated treatment teams.

The development of a successful school to work program needs to be based on the use and creation of a therapeutic milieu. It is not enough to teach an individual successful work habits, rather, it is necessary to teach them the necessary life skills and social skills affiliated with keeping, and enjoying the job. The specific vocational training component is best left to the employer . The necessary "social pragmatics" training is the work of the school. The best vehicle for delivering these skills in a systematic and comprehensive manner is called supportive employment.

During the past several years, League School of Boston has placed an average of 18 students per year in supportive employment positions which has allowed them to either return to an alternative High School setting or transition to the world of full time gainful employment. Several students who reach the age of 21, have graduated and gone on to full time employment.

Philosophy

Current literature indicates that the beginning of adolescence is a difficult and critical time for individuals with the diagnosis of Autism Spectrum Disorders (Frith, 1991). These students, due to their inability to generalize to the environment, have a difficult time modifying their social and behavioral skills to attain the prerequisite skills necessary for successful community job placement. Among those multiple services needed by these individuals are: social/emotional development training, academic training, leisure skill development, vocational training, speech and language development, and on occasion, physical or occupational therapy (APA, 1980).

These program components, according to the literature, offer students a good prognosis for future success in the world of work. The setting for this needs to be a specifically defined mileau environment with a strong community based vocational component (League School, 1996).

Objectives

The primary objective of a good school to work program is to have comprehensive, work related, support services provided by educational and clinical personnel who have the expertise to address student needs and especially understand the relationships between the school and the work environment. Other objectives include:

- Design of a classroom environment that is sensitive to the diagnostic characteristics of the students being served.
- To implement a classroom schedule which intensively focuses on social development.
- communication skills, cognition, and physical development through small groups.
- To expose students to a community based work environment and experiences which will provide contextual practice for "real life" situations.
- To find employers who understand the value of workers with disabilities and who are willing to be supportive.

Needed Services for Classroom/Community Implementation.

- Speech pathologist for Social Pragmatics Training.
- Vocational Trainer for Social Skills Training.
- Social Worker/Psychologist for Individual/Group Therapy.
- Behavioral Therapist for Behavioral Management.
- Teacher for Cognitive Skills and Activities of Daily Living Training.

- Trainer for Leisure Time Activities Skills.
- Vocational Trainer/Job Coach for Job Skill Development.
- OT/PT for Remediation of Specific Environment Skills.
- Physical Education Teacher for stress Reduction/Exercise.

Starting the Program

During a three year period, League School of Boston went from a classroom based vocational model to a community based model. It should be noted that NO students were excluded from the program. All students, regardless of their abilities or intensity of needs were allowed to participate. The entire conversion constituted three phases. The phases of the program included the following: (a) evaluation of program and needs assessment, (b) creation of a new Transition Program Design and Rationale, and (c) the development and implementation of a community based curriculum for implementing an activity-based instructional approach in forming liaisons in community environments (League School, 1996).

Phase I: Needs Assessment

- Student needs are assessed using discrepancy analysis procedures based on individual circumstances.
- Students are matched with potential job sites based on interest, performance ability and predetermined criteria.
- Employers are presented with plan for placement and given necessary supports.

Phase II: Transition Program Design

- Staff employ a trans-disciplinary approach to teaching: i.e., therapists and teachers are integrated into community based instruction.

- A zero reject model. is developed. All students are assessed for placement in the community without regard to severity of disability.
- Hours, transportation issues, schedules, nature of assignments are all discussed and planned.

Phase III: Program Curriculum

The curriculum is divided into a number of domains dealing with specific skill development as well as performance in a variety of work, leisure time, and social environments. Additionally, students receive training in the ADL area so that they are able to develop some of the social requisite skills for successful job performance. Sample domains would include: Transportation, task performance in the workplace, leisure/recreational training, managing behavior in public places, and ancillary work skills. The performance characteristics of the mileau would take the following form:

- Each individual is placed on site and assigned a job trainer or coach
- A vocational training plan is developed for each individual
- All support training (Speech, OT, etc.) is provided at the work site
- Evaluations by the job coach and employer are ongoing
- Job sites may be switched along with length of service depending on student ability.
- Supports are withdrawn as individuals progress.
- Based on conformance to treatment plan, all supports are withdrawn and employer becomes full time supervisor and evaluator.

It should be noted that all jobs are reimbursed at pro-rated competitive wages. Employers, after a reasonable amount of training time are responsible for salaries, benefits, payroll taxes, etc. The school guarantees that all work assignments will be covered. This means that if a client is ill, another client or staff will be substituted. Evening and weekend schedules may be developed as well. Additionally, all phases of the program are documented and parents/guardians are kept informed of progress. Evaluation of all students occurs with students always present and allowed to participate in their own treatment.

Individuals with autism have made much progress in the last few years. They have abandoned the institution in favor of the community school. They have left the sheltered workshop in favor of the community setting. Through community supportive employment coupled with effective social training, the potential for success in the community based vocational arena is now a reality.

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Educational Software : A Current Review

Janna Siegel Ph.D. & Michael F. Shaughnessy Ph.D.

Abstract

This paper will discuss the current status of educational software as it relates to regular, reading education, and special education. Implications for classroom teachers and teacher training programs will be discussed.

Educational software has been with us for some time and it's use continues to grow. Software such as CDs, video disks, and other technologies are becoming increasingly commonplace and teachers need to be able to assess and evaluate software in a variety of modalities. This paper will discuss the use of CDs in certain select areas, review a prototype of each, and discuss a clearinghouse that was set up to evaluate software.

In the field of reading, there are many interactive books that allow students "hands on" experience and opportunities for drill and practice. Students can choose their own stories and their own endings and teachers can assess pre-reading skills and help students to master reading readiness skills. Certain disks contain different languages and there are modified levels in some instances. It is hoped that future software will contain different levels of reading difficulty so that teachers can individualize for each student.

In the realm of mathematics, compact disks can provide drill and practice in game format and there are novel visual aids that make said games entertaining for students. Programmed instruction formats also provide specific skill building exercises. Some CDs contain problem solving formats and higher order thinking skill development.

Writing is another area that can be ameliorated by technology. Various word processing programs enable students to rapidly and easily correct their writing. Students in special education can use spell check, grammar check, and some recent innovations assist students in the writing process by indicating misspelled words as they type. Some interactive stories enable students to write along with the story and still other programs enable students to make their own books. Individualization is possible as individual levels can be adjusted in some instances.

For bilingual students, there are programs in reading, writing, language instruction, and even reference materials. These programs may facilitate instruction or homework or assist in the language learning process. Teachers may be able to use such programs to assist in the learning process.

A major aspect of technology is the realm of assistive technology for special education and other handicapped students. Augmented keyboards assist those with handicapping conditions. There are touch windows and specialized software to assist with communication problems, for instance. Communication is facilitated from text to speech and from speech to text. The Internet is a good source of information for products and resources in this area.

Technology provides students with the ability to reference materials quite readily and in extensive depth. Some programs are multisensory and others are simulations. Students can access people, places, and events via a variety of products and the Encyclopedia Britanica is available in CD format. Some technology programs provide assistance in classroom management. Such assistance is offered in record keeping in terms of class records, grading, providing feedback to students, assisting with routine correspondence, dealing with various forms, and storage of records and documentation in certain instances.

Social Studies teachers can use CDs for information giving as well as direct instruction. Some programs provide a questioning format, others a problem solving scenario. One CD, the Oregon Trail, takes students on a trip west across the Oregon trail, but also encourages higher order thinking and planning as the student traverse the plains of the West.

For higher order thinking skills, there are a number of problem solving programs that investigate some basic scientific thinking processes such as classification, hypothesis testing, and idea generating. Usually, these programs are colorful and non-punitive and allow the student to try different combinations of various options and alternatives.

Students can participate in the arts by visiting museums in London, Paris, and other exotic locales. Some of these programs provide direct instruction and have discussion about art work, paintings, and the artists themselves.

Study skills can often be enhanced by CD technology as typing, test taking skills, memory skills, and other learning strategies can be employed. Some programs may enhance attention and assist students in paying attention for longer periods of time. There are some disks that attempt to enhance critical thinking and higher order thinking skills.

Science teachers can use CDs and other video and laser disks for the providing of information, instructional purposes, and problem solving experiences. Some science projects are explorations of topics (such as a focus on the environment and other issues) and some provide simulations of experiments in a step-by-step fashion.

Increasingly, virtual reality will become a commonplace tool to take students boldly into realms that they have not entered before. Virtual reality may someday allow a student to visit the Grand Canyon or the Champs Elysses in Paris or even take a trip to the Moon!

Assessment is increasingly being emphasized and there are technology programs to assist in this endeavor. Some programs allow for test construction, and provide diagnostic information. Others are more prescriptive in nature. Some programs internally provide test scoring and do statistical analysis and still others provide programmed instruction. Teachers should carefully evaluate software before purchase. There are several questions that should be answered prior to adoption. These questions are:

1) Is the program user friendly?
2) Is the content appropriate to what I am trying to teach?
3) Does the program allow for adequate practice of skills?
4) Does the program provide appropriate feedback?
5) Does the program relate to the curriculum?
6) Is there a pre-test and post test assessment component?
7) Are supplementary materials available?
8) Can this be modified for individual needs?

The authors have established a New Mexico Educational Software Clearinghouse to assist teachers in the evaluation of software prior to purchase. Student teachers are also required to evaluate software for possible use with both regular education students as well as special education students. User friendliness is an important aspect of software evaluation. Some programs force students to repeat long strings of instruction while others allow a more facile approach to learning. Directions are often clear and precise, while in other programs, there are few "exits " and escapes.

Summary and Conclusions

This paper has endeavored to provide the reader with a global overview of some of the issues relevant to instruction technology in a number of areas. We are on the "cutting edge" of a vast new generation of teaching and instructional aids and teachers must be prepared to evaluate, use, and judiciously employ a variety of CDs and instructional media. Such technology can be used in a variety of subjects for a variety of reasons for a variety of students.

Atom's Adam - A Conceptual Model Of Diversity

Karen Hurka

"Using the atomic model of matter, you can see the nucleus contains the protons and neutrons, while the electrons rotate around the outside in circles, known as orbits. These orbits or energy levels....."

The professor droned on and on. He (there were few female physics professors at the time) drew the diagram on the pull-down chalkboard.

Model Of The Atom

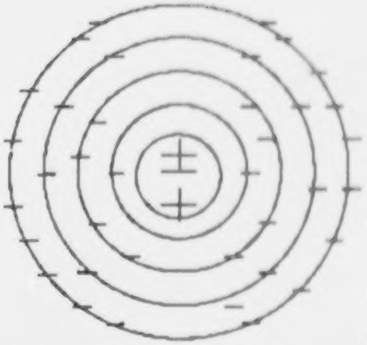


figure 1

(Hurka, 1997)

All the science majors scribbled frantically. We were "seeing" something no one else could "see." Science was wonderful, so exact, so elemental, so proven, so *scientific*.

The model concept is not new, especially for abstract ideas. It provides a symbolic representation for a framework of understanding. So by using this atomic model and applying it to individuals with diverse needs, a foundation is laid for a new conceptual model of diversity formed by a dynamic thought process. This thought process, and resulting model, forces attitudinal examination and mental reshaping, so environments capable of sustaining diverse populations can be created.

There I am! That's me ATOM. I know you can't really see me, but my picture is right there on your paper. Well, kinda. It's very flat and too symmetrical, somewhat disproportionate, but it's a start in bringing me to life.

By superimposing the individual onto the model with the various surrounding support systems, the individual, at the center, becomes the nucleus. The individual's support systems are the electron shells that surround that nucleus.

Model of the Individual

Figure 2

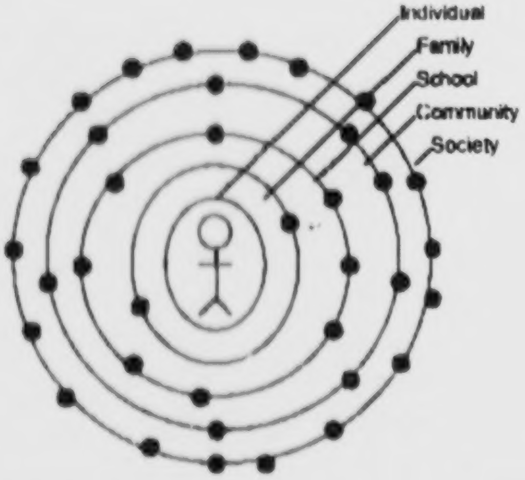
Individual

Family

School

Community

Society



(Hurka, 1997)

I'm taking a new form. I am adam. A model of an individual with diverse needs, surrounded by the systems that have shaped me.

The first, and closest shell, the family, contributes genetic and structural differences. Schools dispense learning in a multitude of styles and levels. Communities are located in different environmental locations with varying customs, while society, in the broadest sense, imparts different social expectations. Individuals are different, but how we think of these differences is crucial for developing a three level thought process. The lowest level of the process is deficiency thought, seeing the deficits, or differences.

Hey, you're recognizing my differences. I am a different gender. I am a different race. I have a different sexual orientation. I have a different family. I talk differently, behave differently, think differently. I am different. I am ATOm, struggling to be adaM.

Deficiency thought has led to recognition of disabilities and, ultimately, adaptive programs to help the labeled individuals. This type of thought is linear. The individual is viewed as dependent while the helper, teacher, or administrator is there to accommodate those differences. "A linear way of constructing reality is so ingrained within our culture that we scarcely imagine that another way of dealing with our surroundings might be possible." (Plas, 1986, P.59) Through acceptance of those deficiencies of the individuals with diverse needs, a proficiency level in the expanding thought process can be achieved, changing the linear model to a circular pattern.

I am seen for the things I "can" do. My strengths are being emphasized with accommodations for my differences. My shape is changing. I am not flat and disproportionate. I am not like every other ATom. I am unique. I am adAM.

The atomic model has a circular nucleus, with circular shells, or energy levels radiating from that center. The model shows how the various parts are connected, keeping the system balanced. In circular thought, as compared to linear thought, all the systems are viewed in relationship to each other and their interaction. There is no "if, then" conditional approach. "Systemic or circular oriented thinking is relatively new to the fields of psychology and education." (Johnson, Zemitzsch,1988, p. 70) An increasing complexity emerges, requiring more factors and options to be taken into account which are interactive and responsive. Because of the multiformity of the radiating shells of family, school, community and society, individual differences are accepted and then viewed from a proficiency level. They are seen for what they possess, the positive. Just as in the nucleus where the positive charge is found, so too is that individual. The electrons that revolve around that nucleus forming the shells have a negative charge, these differences that affect each individual, but the system is viewed as a whole in balance. This systemic approach can be summarized with the old cliché, "in the eye of the beholder". (Johnson & Zemitzsch,1988) With a new proficiency perspective, teaching becomes guiding. The worth of each individual with varying needs is realized. Now the highest level of the thought process is reached–value.

My transformation from Atom to aDAM is almost complete. I have worth; I have depth. I am rising in another dimension. I am a spherical model, global in shape. I have value.

The atomic model is really a spherical center with electrons moving in a spherical cloud around that center, bound together by elemental forces. Because visual representations are on flat surfaces, conceptualization becomes flat also. Volume is difficult to perceive as the visual information is received from a two dimensional screen at the back of the eye. Depth perception gives the ability to function three dimensionally, but the thought process is still linear, dendrite to axon, along the neuron pathway. To internalize volume and "see" spherically, a spatial exercise is needed.

Close your eyes; take your time. Imagine the space around. Allow the other senses to adapt. Now try moving, changing position. Sense the space "around". The brain adapts. This is spherical thought operating. Individuals with diverse needs are viewed within this spherical model, a global approach. There is value in the whole; it is connected. "All things in nature are connected." (Larson, Riveredge Nature Center, 1997).

Viewed for who I am, not what I am, I am ADAM, no longer an atom model. I am part of a family. I learn in a school with a diverse population, sharing and growing. I belong to the community of learners. I reflect an egalitarian society.

As we work to establish a new model by achieving the highest level of thought, a spherical thought environment is created in all of us. Each time a deficiency pattern begins, it is a mental trigger to move up to proficiency thought and ultimately, value thinking. Once this attitudinal thought process is part of each of us, then it can extend to our work, creating inclusive environments that reflect that concept in homes, classrooms, community agencies and national policies. Creating a climate of acceptance for individual differences in interests, abilities, opinions, cultural characteristics, and lifestyles encourages the value of diversity. (Grossman,1995, p.30) We grow from dependence, at the deficit level, to independence at the proficiency level, to valued interdependence. We are teachers, guides, learners. Together we strive to achieve a global, perspective. "Diversity is our strength." (Clinton, 1997) And when each of us reaches down into the center of diversity, there is a oneness, a sameness that transcends the differences.

We are all ADAMS.

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Young Volunteers with Special Needs in Britain - We Can Do Anything.

Katie Player, Debi Roker, & John Coleman

In 1995 and 1996, the Trust for the Study of Adolescence undertook research into the opportunities available in Britain for young disabled people to become volunteers and campaigners. The study was concerned with young people under the age of 21 with learning or physical disabilities, and in some cases, mental health issues. In Britain an image of young people as inactive in their communities and unconcerned with prosocial activities prevails. Many political and voluntary organizations see volunteering–unpaid work within the community–as a way to combat this perceived apathy (Roker & Player, 1996a; Roker, Player, & Coleman 1995; in press).

The project, which was funded by the Gulbenkian Foundation, emerged from a wider study of young people's involvement in voluntary and campaigning activities in Britain (Roker, Player, & Coleman, 1997). We were concerned about views that were being expressed in the first project which defined young people with disabilities as receivers of care. Volunteering and campaigning was seen as something that was done with, and for them, but not by them. We were aware from other activities that we were involved in that many young people with disabilities are themselves volunteers and campaigners, and so we initiated a study which would look at their experiences (Roker, Player, & Coleman, 1996).

The project consisted of two parts. Firstly, a national survey was conducted to find out what kinds of activities young disabled people were involved in and what organizations they were involved with. The survey also involved interviewing organizations and individuals with experience of enabling young disabled volunteers. Secondly, two case studies were carried out within particular organizations. The aim was to find out more about some of the issues involved in supporting and enabling young disabled people to volunteer and campaign. The survey found that young disabled people were involved in a wide range of activities. These included: campaigning for disability awareness and disability issues, working on peer education projects, and working as youth and advice workers. Further activities included campaigning and fundraising for housing and homelessness issues, doing voluntary work with the elderly and children, and undertaking environmental tasks such as woodland management and river clearance. These activities were as diverse as those undertaken by the non-disabled young people surveyed in the wider project.

Young people with special needs who had been involved in voluntary and campaigning activities reported a range of benefits they had gained from their experiences. These included an increased sense of confidence and assertiveness, an increased sense of purpose and structure, and an increased social network. They also mentioned a range of personal and social, as well as practical and work skills, which they had gained. There were also benefits for those whom they were volunteering with. Many people had received help and support because of the young people's volunteering and campaigning work. There were less tangible benefits too. By openly giving their time and skills to benefit their community, the young disabled people were challenging stereotypes of disabled people as receivers of care.

One of the findings of the survey was that young disabled people were accessing their volunteering activities from a diverse range of sources. These included volunteering and youth organizations who placed those wanting to volunteer with an organization and provided support for both volunteer and placement organization. Disability organizations: young disabled people were involved both as volunteers and as campaigners for disability rights. Schools, especially schools for pupils with special needs, at which the young disabled volunteer was usually a pupil.

The survey found that there were considerable and diverse opportunities for young disabled people to become volunteers and campaigners in Britain. However, it also discovered barriers to involvement. Some organizations or activities took place in venues inaccessible to those with mobility problems. Other organizations were unwilling or unable to provide extra facilities or support for young disabled people. Regrettably from some there was the feeling that "they" (i.e. young disabled people) were unable or unsuitable to be volunteers and campaigners. Stereotypes of young disabled people as "immature" and having nothing to contribute persisted in some organizations. This meant that sometimes the only access to the benefits of volunteering and campaigning available to the young disabled person was through their school. One of the case studies looked at a "special school" in England which did involve its pupils in voluntary and campaigning activities. The rest of the paper will concentrate on this case study as a means of suggesting ways in which teachers and schools can encourage and support voluntary and campaigning activities by young people with special needs.

The case study school catered for students aged eight to nineteen with learning disabilities. It had a long history of involvement in the local community. The volunteering project started as an attempt to find "work" placements for the older pupils. Some pupils worked at a local retirement home making refreshments for the residents. This worked well and had gradually been expanded by inviting the elderly people to the school for a party and for an entertainment. The school then sought funding via the Community Service Volunteers (a volunteering organization in Britain) for a two year project. The funding was needed for administration and for the costs of running regular lunches at the school for both the elderly, and parties for a local creche.

The students are encouraged to get as involved as they want with the running of the scheme. They are involved in all areas: planning, budgeting, shopping, preparing and scheduling, food preparation, hospitality, and clearing up. Staffing is provided by one interested teacher, and there is full support from the headteacher. Care is taken to include tasks from a range of curriculum areas; for example pupils prepare the invitations on the computer and use their math skills working out the budget. Special planning sheets enable the children to attempt complex tasks. Staff commented on the confidence the young people involved had gained–for some it was the first time they had been able to give their time and skills to help others.

The school typified successful schemes in several ways: the scheme had started small and grown gradually. They had developed and built on community links to provide support. They had required extra funding to support the initiative in order to provide long term voluntary work. They had provided extra support for individuals and made sure no one was "stretched" beyond what they were confident of achieving. Thorough planning was the hallmark of success in this as in many projects (Roker & Player, 1996b).

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Training Educare Workers: Collaborative Programme Offered by a Formal and Non-formal Training Agency in South Africa

Cheryl D. Foxcroft, Ph.D

In the new, democratic South Africa, the importance of Early Childhood Development (ECD) programmes in providing the foundation upon which lifelong learning is to be built has been recognized by including it as an intrinsic component of the White Paper Policy Framework for Education and Training (1995). However, this has not always been the case as previous governments considered ECD provision to be the responsibilities of families and not that of the state (Padayachie et al., 1994). Consequently, it is not surprising that only 11% of South African children from birth to 6 years of age have had access to ECD facilities and that the early school grades are characterized by high failure and dropout rates as many children have not had the opportunity to be prepared for formal schooling. Furthermore, the provision of ECD programmes has been and still is hampered by various factors, many of which stem from the apartheid past of South Africa. For example, one in three White children have access to ECD services, which contrasts sharply with about one in eight Indian and Coloured children and one in 16 African children who are involved in ECD programmes. Twice as many urban as rural children have access to ECD programmes. Only about 2,000 children with disabilities, half of who are White, attend ECD facilities and there is a serious lack of facilities for Black children with disabilities.

In the absence of effective State provision in the past, non-governmental agencies as well as parents and community-based organizations did sterling work to develop and fund ECD programmes and to provide training to better equip educare workers. Unfortunately, formal training institutions did not recognize the training programmes offered by non-formal training agencies which demotivated educare workers as their career advancement opportunities were effectively stifled.

In order to provide educare workers with opportunities to further their education and training, and so as to start bridging the gap between non-formal and formal training, an unique advanced level educare training course was developed and, since 1996, it has been jointly offered by the Port Elizabeth Early Learning Centre (PE ELC) (non-formal) and the Iqhayiya College (formal), with funding provided by the Delta Foundation. The training initiative is managed by a Management Committee which is comprised of representatives and trainers from PE ELC and Iqhayiya, the South African Congress for Early Childhood Development, the ECD Directorate of the Department of Education and Culture, the Delta Foundation, and an external evaluator from the University of Port Elizabeth.

The aim of the educare training initiative is to enable learners to implement a quality, holistic educare programme for children (0 to 9 years of age) by providing students with advanced knowledge of education, child health, educare administration, and educare theory and practical, as well as providing them with practical and life skills to function effectively as Early Childhood Development (ECD) Practitioners. In keeping with the new educational framework which is being implemented in South Africa, prior learning experiences of students are acknowledged in that educare workers who have previously obtained an introductory as well as an intermediary level educare certificate and who are working in an educare centre are eligible for the advanced level training initiative. Furthermore, the training initiative provides adult learners with the opportunity to enhance their basic level of education, which will make it possible for them to enroll for more advanced learning programmes in the future.

The course runs for two full days per week, during term times, for a year. Students spend the remaining 3 days per week in their educare centres where they can apply what they have learned. Students are divided into two groups at the start of the course. In any one week, the one group attends lectures at the PE ELC while the other group attend lectures at Iqhayiya.

As far as the curriculum is concerned, four courses are presented, namely, Educare Theory and Practical (e.g., the development of the whole child, the didactic task of the educare worker; the daily programme, food preparation, play and the child's development, music rings, and music and movement activities), Educare Administration (e.g., the role and functions of the supervisor and staff, meeting procedures, parent-teachers association, recruitment, interviewing, and appointment of staff, basic accounting, decision-making, conflict management, safety of property), Child Health (e.g., elementary anatomy and physiology, a health policy for a day-care centre, common health problems of children, First Aid, treatment of specific emergencies, Child Abuse), and Education (e.g., physical, social, emotional, cognitive, language, perceptual, and moral development, children with special intellectual, physical, neurological, and emotional needs, school readiness). Career guidance is offered to all students, while entrepreneurial skills are provided for interested students.

To encourage participatory learning, a variety of training methods are used. These include: brainstorming, group discussions, question and answer sessions, and the lecture method. The assessment of students is criterion-referenced (outcomes-based) in that the progress of students is monitored in their educare centres on a continuous basis while they participate in the training programme. Practical assignments are also completed and the knowledge base of students is assessed by means of short tests to enable them to develop sound study habits and test-taking behaviour that will enable them to bridge the gap between non-formal and formal education, should they wish to enroll for a diploma course at a college.

When the training course was evaluated by an external evaluator in 1996, students overwhelmingly rated it as being very worthwhile and relevant. They also indicated that the course greatly expanded their knowledge base, enhanced their practical skills, and provided personal growth opportunities. In the words of one of the graduates, "I am glad that I attended this course because I have learnt a lot about children, and I would like to further my studies in the educare field." Students indicated that they found the modules on children with special needs, visits to special schools, lectures on child abuse and AIDS, job descriptions for staff at educare centres, and the practical work and assignments as being particularly useful and rewarding. The external evaluator was also impressed with the content of the course as well as the nature of the practical training provided. She concluded that the educare training initiative had succeeded in achieving many of its objectives in that it not only upgraded the training of educare workers but it also provided them with career advancement and personal growth opportunities.

It is hoped that the educare training initiative discussed in this paper will provide a framework for how non-formal and formal training institutions can join hands to enhance the training and career advancement opportunities of educare workers in South Africa.

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The Gotcha Trap Of Rules

Sharon Merrill, Ed.D.

You started the school year right by displaying your three to five best rules. You explained them and you posted them. They have clear consequences and you are consistent in enforcing them. Why, then, are there always problems? The students seem to confront and deliberately try to defy which makes you feel defensive and out of control.

As a new teacher I, too, proceeded through the routine of developing rules as suggested in my teacher training program. However, I quickly realized that these rules made life miserable for me. But, why? Not knowing the answer I began to make notes about when my problems occurred and over what issues. A pattern emerged that surprised me. My problems occurred many times when the classroom situation forced me to deviate from the established rule. Was I having a problem with being consistent?

How could I be consistent with the rule RAISE YOUR HAND BEFORE SPEAKING?

When students were finally in a very interactive discussion sharing and questioning statements, I realized that I would not always require them to raise their hands to be recognized before they spoke. This did not present a problem until one or more students would complain because I tried to control the overtalk or interrupting while others tried to contribute to the class discussion. The script usually resembled the following:

TEACHER: "Tommy, you need to raise your hand before you speak!"

STUDENT: "But, you didn't make Sally raise her hand!"

Is this a problem of being consistent?

After a confrontation with a student, I became aware of the need to reflect and record the conflict incident into a summary of the actions and conversation between myself and the student or students. A different focus surfaced. The rules that I implemented in my classroom were causing problems for me. During my teacher preparation at the university, I was instructed that three to five rules written in a positive language would be the best for classroom management. It was suggested that good rules were:

Raise your hand before your speak.

Stay in your seat.

Be prepared.

Keep your hands and feet to yourself.

Use inside voice in the classroom.

Bring your supplies.

From my journal I realized that too many situations were causing me to deviate from the rule. Was the rule written poorly? No, these were rule recommended from my texts and other resources. However, I realized that my frustrations were with developing only three to five rules. How does the teacher address the situations in the classroom when the three to five rules do not apply to so many classroom issues? My problem was not writing and implementing rules, but defining and understanding rules.

What is a rule?

As defined by Etymological Dictionary of the English Language, "rule" used as a noun is a principle governing conduct, action, procedure or arrangement. The English word "rule" is derived from the Middle English word "riwle," (with various spellings including "reule" and "riule"), which was defined as "a general principle governing morals and conduct." The Middle English form was borrowed from the Old French word "reule" or "riule," which was defined as an "order, model or example." "Reule" was adopted into the French language from the Latin noun "regula," defined as "a bar or staff" and later as "a model." "Regula" is the noun deviation of the Latin verb "regere," which was defined as "to direct, or, to show the right way."

What I developed as a rule was not a rule at all! But, what were they? As the definition of rule suggested, I was implementing procedures. The rules had not been developed, but procedures were. This was creating my problem. Continuous word research indicated that the meaning of procedure as an act or manner of proceeding in any action or process; conduct (Kline, 1961). My rules were procedures and trying to confine order and management in my classroom to three or five procedures was my problem.

I could not be consistent because the rule (which really was the problem) was not realistic. For example, regarding the rule RAISE YOUR HAND TO SPEAK. When the class would get into a "good discussion" where everyone was involved and eager to speak, I found it hard to "control" the desires of the students to talk out. Not wanting to stop the wonderful thought processes, I would "allow" students to talk without raising their hands for recognition to speak. Until one student out of frustration would say, "She didn't raise her hand to speak, that's not fair!"

From this reflection I realized that there was more to rules. The issue was not "controlling the behavior of the students" by demonstrating the power of acknowledging them when they may speak. It was an issue of respect and self-responsibility in a group referred to as turn-taking in a social situation. The classroom rule of RAISING YOUR HAND TO SPEAK created a "GOTCHA TRAP."

"GOTCHA TRAP" in the classroom setting is an ensnaring confrontation resulting from a manipulative "rule" or "procedure" which assumes consistent control and regulation over student's behaviors by the designated power figure–the teacher.

The Problem with Power/Control

There seems to be inherent problems with the attitude that teachers are responsible for the conduct in their classrooms. Is it possible to have power or control over others? It is hard enough for each one of us to control our own impulses and behaviors. How can we really "control" others? Trying to control others through rules that are really procedures causes "Gotcha Traps" for teachers. Establishing rules that are general principles that govern procedures provides the structures for flexible management in the classroom.

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Preschool In Korea: New Friends, New Partners

Gail Raymond, Ph.D., Aileen Lau-Dickinson, Ed.D., & Eun Deuk Chyung, M.S.W.

Formal education begins with kindergarten for children in the United States with 90 percent of children having this experience prior to entering first grade. In addition, a large percentage of children have previously attended center-based programs, including day care centers, Head Start programs, preschools, or early intervention programs. In contrast, preschool education is not included in the formal school system of Korea. There are kindergarten programs available, but these programs are provided on a private basis or through social service agencies for low-income children. It has been estimated that 45% of children from low-income families do not receive any early childhood education (Chyung, 1996).

An early intervention program, entitled *Developmental Assessment and Instruction for the Early Years* (DAISEY), (Raymond & Lau-Dickinson, 1993) was introduced in Korea in the spring of 1995, and an interest was expressed in the adaptation of this program for use with preschool children from low-income families in Korea. The DAISEY was initially developed for at-risk preschool children because of later difficulty in academics (Lazar & Darlington, 1982). The children who participated in the development of the DAISEY were from economically disadvantaged families in the state of South Carolina. These children met low-income guidelines for enrollment in child development centers funded by the Department of Social Services. Data provided by the South Carolina Department of Education indicated that 25 to 30 percent of children entering first grade scored "not ready" for formal school curriculum. In response to this concern, new intervention strategies for utilization in child development centers were sought. The DAISEY program was developed with state and federal funds in response to this need.

The DAISEY Program is a comprehensive approach to fostering the language, problem solving, and motor development of low-income preschool children so as to decrease their rates of failure and increase their chances of success in school. The program includes a curriculum containing skills identified by prior research as prerequisite to school success, a curriculum based assessment program linked to the objectives in the curriculum in such a way as to enhance proper placement of children within the curriculum and accurate monitoring of their development after instruction, and finally, a home activities component intended to help parents understand the nature and importance of their children's participation in the program.

Korean Preschool Project

In 1996 a partnership was established between the developers of the DAISEY Program and Eun Deuk Chyung, Superintendent of the Sun Duk Orphanage & Pre-School in Seoul, Korea. This partnership is an effort to determine if this program is appropriate for Korean children from low-income families.

The SCHOOL READINESS INVENTORY (DSRI) is an omnibus test which includes 75 items divided into five 15 item, age-level specific tests. Each of the five tests have been administered during the initial phase to low-income Korean preschool children. The children from the field test were drawn from an orphanage, child care centers, and a kindergarten in Seoul, Korea.

This initial phase of the Korean project is designed to answer the following questions: (1) Are the test items on the School Readiness Inventory (DSRI) appropriate for preschool children from low-income families in Korea? (2) Are there cultural and linguistic differences in the test items which effect the test results? Therefore, the overall purpose of the test is to determine the developmental and age-appropriateness of the items of the DSRI for Korean children ages 3-5 years of age.

Initially, the test (DSRI) was translated into the Korean language by attending the University of South Carolina graduate student from Korea. Secondly, the authors trained Eun Deuk Chyung in the administration of the test. The DSRI test has now been administered to 72 preschool children ages 3.1 to 5.11 in Seoul, Korea. The results of the testing are now in the process of being analyzed.

Observations made by the evaluator, Inna Pyen, regarding cultural and linguistic differences which may have an influence on the interpretation of the results of the testing are as follows:

A. Rhyming. In the Korean language, rhyming is seldom used or has no significance in learning the language. However, "ending sound" match is widely used in language education. The rhyming questions were changed to "end sound" questions found under Language Skills, Level E (Pyen, 1997).

B. Frequency Words. Words frequently used in English may not be frequently used in the Korean language. Sensible modifications were made to use a Korean basic word as found in Language Skills-Vocabulary, Level G (Pyen, 1997).

Further, Pyen, 1997 indicated that cultural issues may have an effect on the interpretation of test results, for example:

A. Courtesy First. When children were asked to follow a 3 part direction in sequence, Korean children followed the directions in steps 3,1,2 (Language Skills-Listening, Level C). It is not that these children do not know the correct sequence, but rather they were following another "rule". In the Korean culture, it is entirely proper and even expected to serve the elders first before doing other tasks. Since #3 was "give me the marker", it was only proper that the "marker" was given first to the elder (teacher). (Pyen, 1997).

B. Virtue of Silence and Reservation. Korean children are brought up not to speak too freely nor to speak unreservedly to strangers, elders and superiors. This cultural factor may explain the cases where some children did not speak nor respond to the test-giver's test question even though the teacher indicated that the child speaks well and knows the answer.

Pyen (1997) found a number of other interesting cultural differences throughout the test administration. Korean children tested appeared to perform well with fine motor tasks, but poorly with gross motor tasks. Is this a cultural difference or does it reflect the fact that these children came from urban areas where outdoor activities are limited and cutting, coloring, and fine motor activities are stressed?

The comparison of Korean and American preschool children on the DAISEY SCHOOL READINESS TEST (DSRT) is proving to have implications for the modification of certain test items to reflect cultural and linguistic differences. However, it is also significant that Korean preschool children are not all that different form preschool children in the United States.

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Effects of Cognitive Awareness Training on ADHD Adolescent Boys

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Attention Deficit Hyperactive Disorder (ADHD) children are faced with repeated failures that make them good candidates for the development of an external locus of control, feelings of helplessness, and no ability to come to grips with their difficulties in meeting the expectations of their environment (Goldstein and Goldstein, 1990). In children with externalizing behavior disorders, especially ADHD, when compared to normal children of comparable intelligence, the likelihood of failure for the former is 2% to 3% greater, and in adolescents delinquency definitely appears associated with school failure (Hinshaw, 1992). Years of skill deficit produce a serious history of negative interaction with the environment which significantly impacts upon the student's personality producing life-long patterns. Much research has been conducted in order to identify sound treatment prescriptions for students who exhibit the duo of externalizing behavior and academic failure. The present study has attempted to address these research findings.

Goldstein and Goldstein (1990) recommended that all ADHD children should experience a short term counseling program enabling them to develop an understanding of how they coped with their environment, and the reasons for the difficulties they experienced. This was the basis for the "cognitive awareness" approach of the present study. By raising the students knowledge about and perception of their disorder, it was hoped that they would interact more efficiently with their environment.

The training programme was designed to provide group support for four adolescent ADHD boys in a semester secondary school, who were experiencing academic and behavioral difficulties. A weekly group set up was chosen based on the belief of Goldstein and Goldstein

(1990) that a small group discussion setting was preferable as many ADHD students were not good candidates for larger group settings where their hyperactivity, impulsivity in blurting our responses, and difficulty staying focused on the task could cause serious problems. See table 1 for details of weekly meetings with weeks 3,4,5,6,8,10 and 11 forming the basis of the training programme.

TABLE 1

Schedule for Cognitive Awareness Training

WEEK	TOPIC
1	Explanation of study, subjects' Contribute to Design, Ground Rules
2	Discussion Subjects' Areas of Concern as a Directive for Future Sessions
3	History of ADHD
4	Diagnosis and Assessment of ADHD/Teacher Information Workshop
5	The Brain and ADHD
6	Medication: Myths and Realities
7	Administration of Wechsler Individual Achievement Test
8	Information Processing: What, How, Where, and Why
9	Cognitive Strategy Interventions
10	Goldstein and Goldstein's Integrated Behavior Model: Explained and Adapted to Subjects' Unique Needs
11	Personal School Problems derived from Subjects' Personal CTRS-28 and Teachers' CTRS-28 Ratings used to Create Individual Strategies for each Subject
12	Observe Utilization of Strategies in the Classroom
13	Observe Utilization of Strategies in the Classroom
14	Discussion of Strategies with Subjects related to Utilization in the Classroom
15	General Evaluation, Where to next semester?

As stated earlier, the expected effects of the training programme would be positive. This would be evidenced by an improvement in the subjects' final examination marks; a decrease in the severity and frequency of disruptive behavioral classroom incidents, and a lowering in the teachers' perception of severity of subjects' teacher rated behaviors from pretest to posttest; and an indication that the subjects wished to continue the support group.

The results support these to some degree. However, the consistency of improvement in the pretest and posttest teacher rating results were disappointing. Subjects showed major improvement in the frequency and severity of disruptive classroom behaviors, yet this was not reflected in the posttest CTRS-28 results. Two of the subjects' marks showed improvement after the intervention. All of the subjects responded positively in the evaluation of the Cognitive Awareness Training sessions, as did the teachers in their response to the Teacher Workshop Session.

In future such interventions might be modeled using Barkley's (1990), and Fowler's (1992) suggestions for appropriate educational environments in which to instruct these students. There is an increase in the literature pointing to other methods of intervention for ADHD that disregard its medical basis in favour of a functional approach for assessment and treatment. Maag and Reid (1994) support such a theory wherein factors are identified that contribute to observed performance in ADHD students. This information is then organized to select appropriate intervention targets and techniques. Educators so empowered then have a model for creating and implementing interventions with their students who exhibit the characteristic behaviors of ADHD. Cognitive Awareness Training, if further researched and tested, might become such a measure.

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Identification Of Deafness

Laurette du Preez, Principal - Carel du Toit Centre

Diagnostics

The Handicap of Deafness and a Solution

Of all handicaps deafness is generally regarded as the most serious because of its far-reaching influence on the mental, emotional and social development of the affected person. The child who is born deaf or becomes deaf in early childhood will not learn to talk and will thus not only be deaf but also dumb. Left to their own resources these children are doomed to a tragic isolation in a silent world. It is important to realize though that the basic handicap is not the hearing loss, but the lack of natural communication skills, and that this basic handicap can be overcome to a great extent if handled the right way, by early detection of the hearing loss, full assessment and early pre-school habilitation of the hearing-impaired baby and young child.

Thus a high proportion of these children, even with a profound hearing loss, may acquire sufficient language and speech to develop intellectually and to enable them to be educated within the conventional educational structure, to adapt emotionally and socially to their normal society and ultimately to compete in the open labour market, also in the professions. We then have a child who can communicate normally, who as far as his education is concerned will have the same needs and problems as hearing children.

Today the emphasis is to identify infants with hearing losses early, before the age of 6 months if possible. This is because we know that infants and young children pass through what is referred to as the 'critical period' for language learning between birth and 3 years. If a hearing loss is identified and managed before that time then it is likely that a child will develop the language skills.

Screening Protocol (Procedures) Followed in S.A.

The indicators of a hearing loss in infants and children. The infant or child with a sensorineural hearing loss does not respond with age appropriate behaviour to the presence of sound. There is the lack of any expressive language and the young infant does not 'babble' or copy any sounds; sounds do not develop into any 'words' or phrases; and the young child may use gestures to communicate his or her needs. These children are often extremely frustrated by their inability to communicate and show behaviours that are difficult to control.

How do we screen hearing in infants and children? In developed or highly industrialized countries the concept of 'universal screening' has been introduced and is widely accepted. We understand by universal screening that the hearing of all infants should be screened prior to discharge from the hospital where they were born. It is unlikely that this approach will be adopted in a country like South Africa because of the significant cost implications as well as the logistics of implementing this in rural areas.

There are two other approaches to screening the hearing of infants and children in South Africa. One is to observe the localization behaviour of infants in response to a sound usually produced behind them. This is called behavioural observation audiometry and the test is referred to as the distraction test. The main problem with this test is that it has poor test sensitivity and therefore its validity as a test instrument is questioned.

The other approach is to use a questionnaire, which either identifies those infants who are at risk for hearing loss or examines an infant's developmental milestones, including speech-language and hearing milestones. The questionnaire approach appears to be user friendly, does not involve the cost of the additional person power required to perform the distraction test, and is not subject to the interference of the high noise levels that exist in our health clinics and health centres. Infants who fail should be referred to the next level in the health services with the suspicion of a hearing loss.

How is sensori-neural hearing loss diagnosed? The appropriate tests for diagnosing a sensori-neural hearing loss can only be performed by Audiologists in sound proof test environments.

Programme Development

The first diagnostic Paedo Audiology and Parent Guidance facility in South Africa was established in Cape Town in the early 1970s. Professor Carel du Toit, head of the Ear Nose and Throat Department at Tygerberg Hospital became the advocate for early detection and habilitation of the deaf child in South Africa. He supported the basic human right that all children with any degree of hearing loss deserve the opportunity to develop the ability to listen and to use verbal communication within their own family and community.

A Team Approach

Deafness is a medical as well as an educational issue and therefore a team approach which includes specialists from both professions was implemented when the Carel du Toit programme started in 1973.

Technological Development

The vast development in this field over the past 20 years has shaped the programme from audition and speech reading to the auditory verbal approach i.e. audition primarily and minimum visual clues. Some children use powerful hearing aids while others have the cochlear implant.

The Parent Guidance Programme

Parent Guidance commences immediately after diagnosis of a hearing loss. This takes place not in a hospital or clinic room but in a therapy home which represents all the amenities of a normal household. The mother, with her child, is taught how to make use of all domestic situations to expose her baby intensively to all sounds, especially the human voice in order to develop his hearing and eventually speech.

The Pre-school Programme

At the age of 3 years those children who have made sufficient progress in language development will attend the pre-school programme. Children are treated in small groups, graded according to language development. An experience based programme is followed: the children go on regular outings and everything they learn is 'experienced'.

A hearing aid gives more hearing but listening has to be learned. Sound must become an important and meaningful part of everything the child is experiencing. Hearing is integrated into the total developmental growth of the child until listening becomes part of everything the deaf child perceives. Children at the Carel du Toit Centre exude confidence because they have become 5 sensed even though there may still be problems to encounter and overcome. The professionals as well as the parents prepare the child for full and independent participation in his community.

Community Involvement

Since the inception of the Centre in 1973 children from all cultural backgrounds have been catered for. The fact is that few children from the poor underprivileged communities are being referred to the Carel du Toit Centre or any other Centre for the Deaf. This is a matter for serious concern as the early detection of deafness is vital to successful intervention.

It would seem that the following problems exist in the under-privileged communities:

- There is a profound lack of knowledge about deafness, its consequences and the help available.
- Screening tests for the detection of deafness are inadequate.
- The referral system from clinics is faulty.
- Transportation problems exist. The poor are unable to reach the centres where help is available.

The Carel du Toit Centre has embarked on a development project aimed at the Xhosa speaking children in the Western Cape.

Conclusion

The Carel du Toit Centre is committed to the development of natural speech and language for the deaf child. This is achieved in two ways. Firstly, early identification of deafness and the fitting of hearing aids. Secondly, by empowering the parents to enable them to adequately support and guide their children. We want those deaf children who have acquired spoken communication skills to attend mainstream schools. Our government supports inclusive education, but there is a desperate need for adequate support services.

What the Carel du Toit offers the family of a deaf child is HOPE. Hope that their child will one day be a fully integrated member of society.

The Implications of Vygotsky's Theory for the Assessment of Disadvantaged Learners

Andre Gouws, Ed.D

Standardized intelligence tests play a central role in the classification and subsequent placement of children in different types of educational programs. A major criticism regarding the use of such tests is that they may be biased against poor, disadvantaged children as compared to middle class, non-disadvantaged children because of differences in language, value, and experiential background, and therefore may not be appropriate tools with which to assess the intelligence of disadvantaged children.

One solution to the problem would be to assume the national norms "discriminate against" disadvantaged group and to determine separate norms for different socio-economic/ethnic/groups, as is done in South Africa. This would free a significant number of them from the disadvantage of being regarded less able than non-disadvantaged children, but by "declassifying" them it would also make them ineligible for special help in case of particular educational need.

Another approach would be to assume that disadvantaged children have special education needs, but that those needs do not necessarily reflect low ability. It is quite possible that there are circumstances, often associated with disadvantagement or socio-economic status, that result in need for a different kind of educational assistance than one sees in non-disadvantaged children. Such needs might be related to language difference, and reduced opportunities to learn from participation in the normal institutions of society, i.e. "cultural deprivation" (Feuerstein, 1980). To the extent that this is true, the challenge is to design and use assessment instruments that can reveal the processes by which children perceive, think, and learn; identify deficient processes;

estimate the kinds and amount of intervention required to overcome the deficits; and prescribe educational interventions.

One of the most promising alternative procedures developed for the explicit purpose of eradicating issues of bias in the assessment of disadvantaged children is dynamic or interactive assessment.

This approach is based on the recognition that there is a difference between performance on standardized intelligence tests and learning potential. The measurement of potentiality in intellectual development is rooted in the theory of "cognitive modifiability" (Feuerstein, 1980) and conceptually defined as the "zone of proximal development" or ZPD (Vygotsky,1978). The ZPD is "*the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined trough problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers*" (Vygotsky, 1978: 86).

This paper will examine the various current interpretations of the ZPD in the assessment of learning potential and point out that many of them are inconsistent with Vygotsky's theoretical formulations and with his suggestions concerning, how the concept might be useful in assessment practice.

The first point to be emphasized is that the successful use of the concept of the ZPD in psychoeducational assessment will depend on how well we understand the developmental processes and their underlying mechanisms. Vygotsky's views concerning these mechanisms provide a potentially strong foundation for applying the concept of the ZPD in assessment practice, but they must be refined and grounded in addition empirical research (Minick, 1987).

Second, in analyzing the ZPD we will have to do more than identify the upper limits ("fruits") of a child's collaborative activity, as emphasized by Vygotsky in his comments on the analysis of the ZPD for assessment purposes. As Wertsh (1984) has pointed out, in order to determine the cognitive functions that are currently maturing (the "flowers" or "buds") and to predict the proximal stage of a child's development, the assessment of the ZPD must focus on the qualitative characteristics of adult-child interactions.

Finally, it is important to emphasize that many basic characteristics of traditional approaches to psychoeducational assessment will have to be altered as dynamic approaches are developed on the basis of the ZPD. For example, the relationship between test design and the assessment process as a whole will have to change. In general, the assessment of qualitative aspects of psychological development though psychometric techniques involves the design of tests that require a given mental process or a given level of development for successful performance. Inherent in this approach are the difficulties that arise in interpreting performance failure, because of the fact that successful performance of these tests inevitably involves not only the mental function being assessed but other factors, including those associated with cultural deprivation. A dynamic approach to assessment avoids this problem.

The author holds the view that the ZPD has tremendous potential for enhancing our understanding of why certain children experience difficulty at school and for facilitating the development of forms of remediation that may enable them to overcome these difficulties.

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Teacher Training and Curriculum Issues Revisited: A Cross Cultural Model

Lori R. Muskat, Ph.D. & Jackie S. Eldridge, Ed.D.

"If a gun is hanging on the wall in the first act, it must fire in the last." (Chekhov cited in Catron, 1993, p. 101)

Chekhov's words, well-known to students of playwriting, hold value for educators as well. Succinctly, Chekhov was referring to the tight structure and economy that characterize great works of drama. In essence, all aspects of a piece should emanate from some central objective and should propel the piece toward the accomplishment of that objective. Tight structure and economy have their place in education as well. After all, education does have a central objective. Or does it? The **purpose** of education continues to be a topic of debate among philosophers and educators (Noddings, 1995; Cronin, 1996).

In the following paragraphs, we shall address problematic issues in curriculum, special education and teacher training that beset the field of education in Canada and the U.S.A. Unfortunately, length limitations prevent more than a cursory description of these issues. A lengthier paper is available, however, and can be obtained by contacting either of the authors.

Noddings (1995) states that the basic components of education described by Plato 2,000 years ago have remained at the heart of education. Literature, history, mathematics, and philosophy still form the backbone of the curriculum although numerous contemporary philosophers of education and educators themselves question the wisdom of using this approach (Noddings, 1995; Cronin, 1996).

For at least two decades, many educators have asserted the importance of **life skills**, the skills that are required to be a successful adult and that are demonstrated in an individual's level of independent living, community adjustment, and enhanced quality of life (Cronin, 1996; Dennis, Williams, Giangreco & Cloninger, 1993). To the extent that life skills are often overlooked in the curriculum, objectives set for special education students are often myopic–consisting of short term goals–rather than taking into account the bigger picture and forcing us to keep in mind that which we are ultimately helping a child to accomplish (Muskat, 1996).

Built upon this unstable foundation of murky objectives is the changing landscape of special education. In the United States and Canada, the trend is toward "inclusion", the policy which 'encourages' the education of students with learning problems within mainstream classrooms (Martin, 1993; Gallagher, 1993).

Research has conveyed the benefits and effects of inclusion for students (Gartner & Lipsky, 1987; Lieberman, 1984). Much of this research has utilized quantitative methods based on Platonian, content-based, short term curriculum objectives that have little to do with longer term outcomes such as life success. Further, in the actual delivery of education, Fullan suggests (1982, p. 27) that "teaching decisions are often based on pragmatic trial and error grounds with little chance for reflection or thinking through the rationale."

Thus, while the intention of inclusion is ultimately to improve education, one has to inquire about the benefits of such a practice when those who are at the grassroots levels (teachers and their students) usually do not have time to integrate the changes into their daily lives of teaching and learning. Further, in investigating the efficacy of such an approach, Bruner and others (Bruner, 1990, p. xiii; Eldridge, 1996) assert that people's lives are too complicated to "limit inquiries to ways of thinking that grew out of yesterday's physics."

In essence, the reality of inclusive practices as they function in many mainstream classrooms in the U.S.A. and Canada today, is as follows: students with a wide range of disabilities are being placed in classrooms of teachers who are not adequately trained to provide the most appropriate program for them and whose objectives continue to be defined by outdated curriculum ideals. Often, despite good intentions, mainstream teachers do not have the time nor access to the appropriate training in order to meet the needs of many of their students with learning problems. In addition, support staff (i.e., psychologists, speech and language specialists, reading specialists, etc.) who work in consultation with mainstream teachers may not be ample enough to provide mainstream teachers with the support they need. This results in an unsatisfactory situation for students and teachers alike. More importantly, educational objectives remain murky; concepts of economy and tight structure in a student's program are virtually nonexistent.

We, the authors, believe that current problems in inclusive educational practices in the U.S.A. and Canada can be ameliorated through a variety of interventions. These include the provision of adequate and appropriate support to teachers through improved teacher education and additional in-service training. Teacher education must be modified to include: a conceptual approach to the multidimensional needs of all students; re-evaluation of current curriculum practices, the role of life skills in particular; and, the importance of longer term objectives in education.

In modifying teacher training, we believe that the use of qualitative methods in research is essential. In particular, the use of teachers' personal stories could "become a catalyst for a deeper understanding of our common work, for moving beyond the existing frameworks together (Hollingsworth, 1994, p. 132).

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What Did You Say? (AD/HD and Its Impact On Language)

Betsy Kinkade, SLP

Language is the primary means that each of us has for controlling our environment. Language, for people with ADHD, may, like their cognitive ability or the degree to which they display attention deficits, fall anywhere on the scale. Bright people may learn to compensate for their weak areas just as a nurturing, knowledgeable atmosphere may overcome some difficulties. Auditory processing control, that system that allows us to give meaning to what we hear, may be directly or indirectly affected by AD/HD. Children may get by with a good memory when their organizational skills are poor, and good expressive language skills may help weak summarizing or paraphrasing skills. Children with AD/HD may face difficulties when a task requires verbal organization. They may not be able to separate salient information from the total picture, to tell what is important and what is not. They may have greater difficulty with long and complex pieces of information than with short presentations, or with facts that are embedded in the midst of complexities, and yet be able to comprehend well when the language is simplified into its less complex parts. They may deal more successfully with information given early in the day rather than late. They may have trouble filtering out sounds as well as visual stimuli, and therefore present with difficulties in carrying on a conversation or accomplishing verbal tasks. They may show inconsistent understanding, or display poor short term memory or absent-mindedness. Social skills are affected.

The first step in any intervention is to make certain that all sensory systems are functioning as well as they can. Then, make yourself aware of the many strategies that are cited for home and school intervention. Be aware that interventions which work one time may not work the next, and techniques that are highly successful may lose their effectiveness very quickly for a child with AD/HD. The desire for novelty and stimulation is, after all, a lot of what the disorder is all about.

Addressing language specifically, we need to teach this child to self repeat or to re-read directions. Teach rehearsal strategies and self testing techniques with paraphrasing and the need for repetition of instructions. Association techniques and self reminders may be effective. Teach the child to become his own advocate. Perhaps he will need to learn and rehearse saying, "I'm sorry but I didn't get everything you said."

If a child can't tell you what the question or the problem is, how can he be expected to respond appropriately and adequately? How can we expect a child to carry out an assignment if he can't repeat it in some form? Ask a child to repeat directions aloud after you, the teacher or parent, have given instructions. If the child can't tell you what you said, did he hear you? Did he understand you? Does it really matter? The important thing to understand is that if you have just said something that you think is important, an assignment for example, or a key point, you must take it on yourself to know that it was not only heard but also understood. Ask for oral repetition from the child with AD/HD, and you may find out why he sometimes seems to ignore you.

Verbal rehearsal is often successful. To do this, the child learns to repeat, starting with simple single words. The task increases in complexity as the number of words increases, the grammar used in the sentence evolves, the length of time between the speaker's statement and the child's repetition increases, and more complexity is introduced. Ultimately, the child re-words the information putting it into his own words without changing meaning or sequence.

Goals of social language might include learning to predict outcomes of behaviors (including what the child wants the listener to think), ways to review outcomes and explore alternatives that might have been better, self assessments, awareness of non-verbal messages, and practice of desirable interpersonal language. Specific social goals might include such things as disagreeing in an acceptable manner, using body language to enhance communication, practicing polite telephone manners, and asking for information in an acceptable way. How to apologize and to accept an apology, how to express gratitude and how to accept it graciously are kinds of language that may need specific teaching. For example, a teacher might have to say to the student, "This is the way to say, 'I'm sorry.' First, you make eye contact with the person; then say the words in this tone of voice. Now you try it. Pretend that you lost someone's book. Practice telling them." This may seem overly specific; sometimes it is the best and only way.

A child with AD/HD may learn to use language differently not only because he only attends to part of the message or because he processes it differently, but also because you and I and his teachers and his friends and his family all talk to him differently than we do to other children. Evidence exists that even at preschool level, popularity is highly correlated with ability to use language effectively. It is frustrating for us as adults to have to repeat things over and over. It is trying to be ignored or to be interrupted. We raise our voices, we shorten our sentences, we say less and explain less to a child who has difficulty paying attention to us. We may become angry or sarcastic or ridiculing. And we are the ones who are on the child's side! Never forget that the child with AD/HD will likely have suffered some severe damage to his self perception. His self esteem has been affected. He may have a reputation for being "weird." He may need to know the appropriate words to use to respond to teasing or victimization, and to learn how to develop much desired friendship skills or even getting-along-with-his-family skills.

Greater understanding of the difficulties of the child with AD/HD may help him come closer to reaching his potential. It is not so important to "label" this disorder as it is to consider how this can affect every aspect of the child's life, and to do what we can to help deal with and make the most of his attention. As teachers or language therapists or counselors, we can help others understand him, and we can give him tools to enhance his own life. We can show by our behavior that we accept or reject him. We can credit or discredit him every time he walks in the classroom door. We can point out his problems in front of his peers or we can find ways to aid him through his power surges and weaknesses. We choose. The child suffers or benefits.

Funding Special Needs and Diversity Programs with Planned Gifts

Maurice. E Kinkade, Ph.D.

The impact of inflation and government cut-backs continues to constrain the effectiveness of many programs designed to expand diversity programs and fund special needs. As many budgets, for both public and private schools, are being caught in the down-sizing wave, more development efforts are including an area which has been ignored by smaller private schools and most public schools. In addition to the annual fund and the golf tournament as fund raising activities, planned giving is increasingly being used.

Planned giving is often thought of as types of gifts in an area of development limited to estate settlement to benefit the charitable cause. Another frequent misconception is that planned giving is incompatible with annual and capital campaigns. Money and pledges of money through planned giving is too often thought of as replacing the regular giving pattern of donors. Increasingly, development professionals are approaching the area of planned giving with an attitude of "gift planning." This approach is pro-active in which the donor's needs, goals, and values are blended with the assistance of the development professional to satisfy the goals of the donor and the needs of the institution. A nurturing approach aims to merge the donor's allegiance to the institution with the needs of the institution so that it becomes the primary choice for the donor's philanthropy. The tools of planned giving help the blending of the timing and types of gifts made by donors.

Donors support charities primarily because their values and goals are compatible with those of the institution. In contrast to approaching donor discussions with the needs of the institution determining the pace and direction, gift planning enables the needs of the donor and the institution to be simultaneously matched. Major gifts are more likely made when the donor is ready (donor driven philanthropy) than when the charity wants the money (needs driven philanthropy). The charity is more likely to be successful if cultivation is an ongoing process that includes knowing, understanding, and helping to solve donor concerns than the traditional institutional needs driven collection efforts.

Planned gifts have at their root who the donor is and why are they giving a gift to the institution. Once the development professional has succeeded in identifying the who and why surrounding the donor, the focus should then move to the tools of planned giving to satisfy how and when the gift will be made and what will be given. Like other gifts, these may include cash, securities, real estate, personal property, and other assets. They may be given immediately, over a period of time, or at death.

The variations in planned gifts include a bequest paid out of the estate upon the death of the donor or paid out during the life of the donor. Planned gift options include variations in which assets are placed with a trustee during the donor's lifetime, a tax deduction for the donor, income which may be paid to the donor, the donor's family, or to the institution, and ultimately the transfer of the assets to the donor's heirs or the institution. Unlike annual funds and other similar gifts, planned gifts require a relatively long preparation period with the donor and typically do not come from income but from accumulated assets, wealth, and net worth.

One of the tools of planned giving is the life income gift. As part of the gift to the school, the donor is paid a portion of the gift as annual income for the remainder of their life. One type of life income gifts is a Charitable Remainder Trust which involves the transfer of assets of cash, securities, or other property to a trustee who invests the assets and pays income to the donor or someone designated by the donor. The trust may exist concurrently with life of the donor or may be for specified term. At the end of the trust, the trustee pays over to the institution the remainder of the assets in the trust.

The Charitable Remainder Trust is particularly attractive when the investor owns assets which have significantly increased in value, produce a low income, and would be heavily taxed if sold. Transferring the appreciated asset into a trust created under as a charitable remainder would allow the donor to receive a tax deduction, the trustee to sell the assets without incurring a tax liability, invest the proceeds in higher income producing assets, and pay the income to the party designated by the donor. The assets are removed from the donor's estate and would reduce the estate tax liability which would otherwise be incurred. Other tools include the gift annuity, pooled income fund, with many of the same characteristics of charitable remainder trust, i.e., donor gives up control of specified assets and in return is paid an income portion of the assets until the end of trust at which time the assets are delivered to the institution.

Charitable Lead Trusts which provide income from a trust to the institution for a specified number of years and then transfers the assets to the donor's heirs. Lead trusts are the mirror image of remainder trusts. Lead trusts pays the income to the institution and the assets to the donors heirs. Remainder trusts pays the income to those designated by the donor and the assets eventually go to the institution. Lead trusts are a popular planning tool for making charitable gifts and transferring assets to future generations. The donor receives a charitable gift tax deduction for the value paid to the charity, removes the income from their tax returns, and reduces the assets subject to estate tax. This can be an effective method for a donor who may wish to make a substantial gift, doesn't have sufficient liquidity, is concerned about estate and gift taxes, and wants to preserve the bulk of their estate for their heirs.

An individual's residence is the largest single asset of many potential donors and is used with another planned giving tool. Through the planned giving tool of a Gift of Residence with Retained Life Estate, donors are able to make a significant gift to the institution, receive an immediate tax deduction, and retain the use of their residence for the rest of their lives. This gift tool enables the donor to make a substantial gift without having a liquid asset to use and retain the use of their residence.

Combinations of planned giving tools expand their flexibility in meeting the needs of the donor, and therefore, the needs of the institution. For example, a donor can create a Wealth Replacement Trust through the use of a charitable remainder trust and a life insurance policy. The income paid to the donor heirs can be used to purchase life insurance on the donor with ownership of the policy in the names of the heirs. This tool allows the income from the trust to pay for the insurance and not have the proceeds from the policy included in the donor's estate subject to estate tax or taxed as income to the heirs.

Planned giving tools can create opportunities to fund the special needs and diversity programs needed by the school with the philanthropic abilities of the donor.

The Improvement of the Creative Ability of Deaf Children.

Frans H. Badenhorst Ph.D.

Creativity makes the world spin till the end of time... The technological age of the Western world creates demands for the people who form part of it. If one wants to survive one must develop one's creative abilities. Rogers (1959:70) already stressed this concept during the fifties when he proclaimed, "Unless man can make new and original adaptions to his environment our culture will perish." At present the post modernistic philosophy is prevailing in the South African educational system.

Simple Against the Complex

Newton studied and observed a universe that was not complex and his mathematical calculations were harmonious and uniform. Complexity became part of the social sciences so that we can declare emphatically: All knowledge is relative. This can also be applied to disabilities–all persons are disabled some to a greater extent than others. The complexity of science requires new cognitive strategies e.g., the intelligence theory of Sternberg (1985). Creativity that encourages divergent analytical and associative thinking is such a cognitive skill. The improvement of creativity as embodied in the title points to the fact that a quantitative method was used–there has to be a pre- and post-testing. The norm referenced Torrance test of creative ability was used. It is necessary to compare and look into the definitions of creativity.

Definitions

The components of creativity that received much attention in the past were the process, the person, and the final product. Although the environment plays an important part, it was largely ignored in the past as a dimension of the creativity process.

2.1 Person Guilford defined the creative personality as being able to understand complexity and to integrate facts.

2.2 Process

Torrance (in Badenhorst 1995) describes the creative process as follows: ". . . process of sensing gaps and formulating hypotheses. Evaluating these guesses and making the results known." Ainsworth-Land-Land (1982) remarked that creativity is a complex set of cognitive emotional and motivating processes. "There is no one creative process."

2.3 Product

Hausman (1979 -1980:239) defined the creative product as follows: " Creativity occurs on condition that a new and valuable intelligibility come into being."

Deaf

Smuts (1986) described the deaf as uncreative people. This might have been the case long ago when they didn't receive proper education and training. The quantum theory may explain the creative process partially.

Quantum theory

According to Kierkegaard (Feuer 1974), human creativity manifests itself in non-continuous and abrupt transference known as qualitative leaps. Creative events can thus not be ascribed to a specific cause. According to Cohen (1984), the creative theory can be divided into two groups, viz, the meganistic and the organistic. The meganistic theory is based on cause result reductionism. The organistic theory is based on the final cause and holistic principle. The theory of creativity can be found between organism and mechanism. We can redefine the creative process as follows: It is the process through which something new is created in a new context.

Experiment

Badenhorst (1991, 1995) applied the Torrance test of creative abilities (figural part) at two occasions on hearing impaired learners. The verbal part of the Torrance test couldn't be used because of the lack of the hearing impaired learner's vocabulary and grammatical structures (Badenhorst 1986). In his work with hearing impaired children Badenhorst found that a correlation may be established between the non-verbal intelligence quotient and the figural originality as well as between the verbal intelligence and the abstractness of titles. At the first appliance of the test the testees were enrolled at the Sonitus School for the hard of hearing and were taught according to the aural-oral method. The Torrance test was repeated with three learners from the pre-experiment who at a later stage were enrolled at the Transoranje School for the Deaf. Two of the experimentee have been transferred from Sonitus School to Transoranje. The other testee left Sonitus School and enrolled at a school for normal hearing learners.

Results

	Subject A		Subject B		Subject C	
	1991	1995	1991	1995	1991	1995
Originality	114	110	93	121	108	131
Abstractness of titles	89	70	89	90	90	91

According to the results of Subject B and C remarkable improvement took place in the figural originality. Subject C took technical drawings as a subject that might have contributed to the better mark she attained. No improvement in the abstract titles (verbal part) occurred (cf Badenhorst 1991).

Conclusion

A stimulating environment is of primary importance for the development of the creative abilities of the hearing impaired. This is the reason why the deaf preferably must be taught in a school for specialized education with art as an integral part of the curriculum. Wishful thinking I want to reach for the skies I want to create a new social order... creare est prima.

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Field Of Attention In The Classroom

Svein Otto Aarland

By "field of attention" I understand the teacher's awareness of the different pupils in the classroom. Who does the teacher actually see and hear? To whom does he or she adress him/herself and for what purpose? Which pupils are asked to answer questions? All this has to do with closeness - i.e., to what degree do we live with what is happening in the classroom? This is important for maintaining dicipline, the pupils' possibilities for identification, and for the teaching/learning connection. Good teaching does not necesserely lead to learning because the teacher, for various reasons, does not reach the pupils with his/her message. One of these reasons is the teacher's ability to use his/her attention.

Human beings create habits in every field of human activities. The teacher's habits of spreading attention in the classroom have great impact on millions of lives throughout the world. Therefore it is of utmost importance to find out of what is *really* going on in the classroom. I am not speaking of the obvious, but circumstances that we normally are not aware of. This is an enormous task and I can't do it alone–I need help.

I will present to you some hints or hypothesis after studying classrooms for 17 years. My material is limited; I have only studied Norwegian classrooms, but I don't think that people from other parts of the world are different from Scandinavians. Therefore I would like to present to you a typical Scandinavian classroom and the conditions and some teaching/learning results of the conditions normally existing there.

The Norwegian classroom is like a sheet of paper–size A4. In here the pupils and the teacher shall work with the purpose to learn (the teacher and the pupils shall be wiser). The physical surroundings are one of the factors which influence the teacher's habit of spreading attention.

First some words about the teacher's *inner focus.* Where is the teacher's *inner* focus? It can be on four places; on the subject matter, on the social setting, on himself (how do I look? What do the pupils think of me? Do they like me and so on). It can also be placed outside the classroom–so to say–out of the window. (What really happened yesterday?). If the teacher had a quarrel with his/her wife/husband he/she is supposed to be less oriented on the life in the classroom than if she/he had good experiences with his/her family yesterday. Personal day to day experiences have more impact on the teaching/learning situation than we usually are aware of. The better private life, the more concentration in the classroom and on teaching. A less satisfying private life with many personal problems may lead to little concentration on what is going on in the classroom and the teaching has a tendency to be superficial. Therefore a provocating question: Can we demand of teachers that their lives should be in a state of equilibrium or happiness?

A one-sided focus on the subject matter can also be devastating or destroying if the teacher is not able to see what is really going on in the classroom. Then he/she is not able to use the different social mechanisms as tools in his/her teaching. Then the teacher is only speaking for him/herself and will have difficulties in reaching the pupils–the teacher is perceived as dull and boring. The class has a tendency to develop disciplinary problems. This is unfortunately a growing problem the more education the teacher has, and it is also a high level educational problem. I dare say that *dull and boring teaching is first and foremost an academic high level problem.* In my material (interviews made when I worked as school psychologist 1974 - 1979) approximately 85% of seven to ten year old pupils, in this material, say that the teaching is engaging and exciting. After the pupils have reached the age of ten, it seems that they experience the teaching as more and more boring. At the age of fifteen only approximately 20% of the pupils say in this small scaled interwieuv (113 pupils) that the teaching is engaging. A question for further research: Does the Norwegian schoolsystem destroy the pupils' joy of learning? How is it in other countries?

It can also be destroying if the teacher is too occupied with social matters in the classroom. He or she has social antennas and understands the social mechanisms and situations. This is of course normally good, but it is not of any value if he or she is so occupied with this that he/she forgets to teach. After all, the teacher's role is of course to teach.

I am, for the time being, working with the hypothesis that: (a) Subject matter oriented teachers have a tendency repeatedly to address the same pupils. He/she has a rigid field of attention. (b) Social oriented teachers have not a clear and well defined field of attention. (c) Self oriented teachers direct their attention towards pupils who express, in one way or another, that they like him/her.

To conclude the discussion of the teacher's inner focus, I would like to say that the teacher *shall* be occupied with the subject matter for his/her role is to teach. He or she *shall* be occupied with social matters for these can elegantly be used as a powerful tool in reaching the pupils with the teaching. The teacher *shall* be occupied with him/herself for he or she is the most important instrument in the teaching. The teacher should be an actor–a little one. This can be motivating and attention orienting.

If the teacher is able to combine those three factors, the subject, the social, and the personal, we have the good teacher. The teacher can only beckon the little finger and she or he has the pupils in his/her hand.

You must hold in mind that I am speaking of the traditional classroom where the pupils are sitting in rows and lines before the teacher's desk and the teacher is lecturing. When it regards eye contact with the pupils and listening to and adressing pupils, the classroom seems to be divided in two halves. The fifty percentage of the pupils sitting nearest the teacher's desk get much more positive attention from the teacher than the fifty percentage sitting behind a imaginary middleline dividing the class. This seems to be true except for the first line of pupils sitting nearest the desk. They receive little attention of any kind for one reason or another. It is up to us to speculate why. If the pupil wants to be unseen and unheard he/she should place him/herself in the first line and best of all, on one of the edges.

In connection with this, it seems that every individual teacher has his or her individual habit of spreading attention in the classroom, but in average the positive attention is in the middle of the class, line two, three, and four before and behind the imaginary dividing line for attention–and remember–not the row by the wall and not the row by the windows.

The teacher's use of attention may have serious impact on the pupils learning situation. If the teacher's habit of spreading attention leads to that it is always the same pupils who are getting attention, these pupils will have a tendency to being active, attentive, and probably they will have greatest benefit of the teaching. Pupils outside the teacher's field of attention will, over a period, be less interested in being active and attentive. It is not of any use to be active because the teacher most likely oversees them anyway. Most of the drop outs (mentally or physically) are sitting outside the teacher's field of attention. They are also more often neglecting their homework. In other words, it is quite possible that the teacher's habit of giving attention to the pupils can contribute to creating academic and social losers.

Another common phenomena is the following: Back in the right corner seen from the teacher's desk, there are four or five pupils engaging in other activities than the subject matter. They are a little bit uneasy, giggling and chatting together. The teacher is aware of them and gives them much negative attention in the sense of control and disciplinary actions. But despite of this, the relationship between the teacher and these pupils is mostly good. As we know, negative attention is better than no attention at all! So, it does not help on the pupils behavior that the teacher tries to control them, rather the opposite.

If you have such a disturbing corner in your classroom, there is a tendency to be another, and very quiet opposite corner, namely the corner to the left of and downside the teacher's desk. These pupils get little attention. Is that because the uneasy corner back to the right demands so much of the teacher's attention that he/she is unable to give these pupils attention too? When he/she looks down to the right it is difficult to be attentive to the nearest rows and lines to the left. For the time being, this is only a hypothesis.

In the traditional classroom there are a few other phenomenas I will mention. Back in the left corner seen from the teacher's desk sits normally a girl. Her desk are drawn as far as possible away from the other pupils desks. Who is this girl? Let us take a look at the placing. What can this tell us about the pupil?

First of all, this pupil can see all the other pupils but only their backs. She/he can not see the eyes. In addition to this, the pupil has his own back protected. It is also difficult for most of the class to see her/him. A hypothesis will therefore be that this pupil is withdrawn, afraid, and socially unsecure. May be a probable bullying victim. But be careful–do not go into a classroom and think "Oh yeah, there sits an unsecure pupil." Remember, this is only statistics! Do not mix up statistics with reality!

Sometimes we also have a pupil (statistically a boy) sitting in the upper right corner seen from the teacher's desk. If possible behind the teacher's desk. Who is he? What does the placing tells us?

This pupil cannot see the other pupils without turning around. Everybody can see him/her–and they can see his or her back! He/she is socially secure, and if you talk to him/her and ask why he/she has placed him/her in such a way, you will probably get the answer that here he/she can concentrate on the subject matter with a minimum of social disturbances. In other words–a clever pupil. But again the warning about statistics.

At last I will draw your attention to a pupil sitting just outside the teacher's field of attention and just behind a very active pupil. His or her desk is drawn close up to the active pupil's desk. This pupil is very timid and will not–for one reason or another–be seen by the teacher. Unconciously he/she knows that the best way not to be seen, is to sit close behind a very active pupil.

These observations are, for the time being, objects for further studies, and I hope that my work will be finished at the end of 1999.

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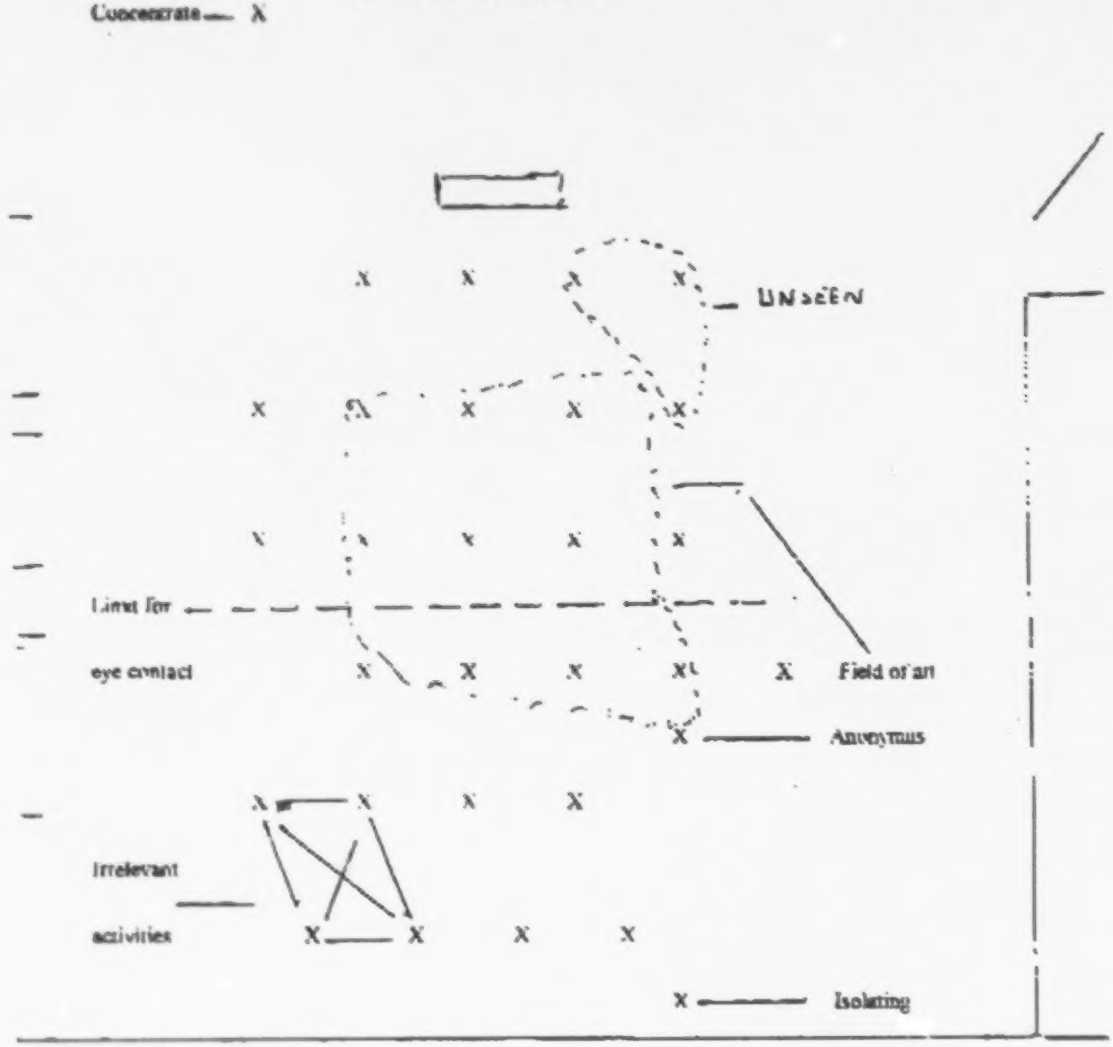
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Culturally Relevant Partnerships between Families and Professionals

Paula Neville, M.A.T., Barbara J. Reid, Ph.D., & Anupriya Chadha, M.S.E.

Historically, developing countries have imported their practice in special education from the USA and other Western cultures. This has been done, however, without taking into consideration the cultural relevance or implications of these practices. Frequently this process has denied the strengths and resources of a culture or even bypassed the predominant values and beliefs of the people (Fuglesang, 1982; Keto, 1990). Additionally, by the time practices are promoted in other countries, the West may already be questioning the assumptions underlying the imported practice. An example is the current shift in the focus of Western support services from institutional care based on a medical model to natural and community-based supports. As special educators in Western societies respond to increasingly diverse student populations, the inappropriateness of the one-size-fits-all model is becoming increasingly evident. The goal of Western special education to inclusively accommodate diverse student and family needs is challenging the current conceptions of disability, the administration of special education services, and parent/professional relationships.

The meaning of special education in the US cannot be understood without first examining the cultural framework from which it evolved. Special education in the US developed from a medicalized objectification of student learning difficulties and is reinforced by Western economic and value systems (Oliver, 1990). The power of the medical model comes from the positivistic values of science and objectivity held by Western technological societies. The medical model of disability locates the deficit within the individual or group rather than the family, school, or other social context. Under this model, the role of the professional involves the objective evaluation or assessment of students through scientifically validated tools for the purpose of remediation (Harry & Kalyanpur, 1994). The medical model assumes universal notions of *normal* and *disabled* removed from any cultural or social influence. The professional role of "expert" within the medical model of disability distances professional knowledge from parent knowledge making it very difficult for professionals to relate to parents with differing perspectives and belief systems (Harry & Kalyanpur, 1994).

Increasingly in the US, special education professionals are challenging the assumptions embedded in the medical model of disability. Emerging discussions on the cultural and social constructions of disability are challenging Western, special education practices, and call for a reexamination of school policies and practices. Although once promoted as culture-free, increased awareness of the cultural biases within Western, special education policies and practices challenge their appropriateness for other cultures, including the diverse cultural contexts within the US (Higginbotham, 1984; Kalyanpur, 1988; Miles 1981).

One of the more recent trends in US special education has been the emphasis on professionals working collaboratively in partnership with families. Inherent in this trend is a redefinition of family and the roles that families play in the education of their children. Currently a family systems approach in combination with a family strengthening perspective is being promoted. This perspective requires that a family's strengths, functioning style, priorities, needs, and choices are the basis of the interactions (Dunst, Trivette, & Deal, 1995). Additionally, a multicultural perspective is being added to these viewpoints which implies that a test of cultural relevance be applied to the procedure.

Although this focus on family systems and strengthening is a response to the cultural diversity within the US, it remains inextricably linked to both the egalitarian basis of American democracy (Schlossman, 1983) and the ideal of freedom of choice (Anderson, *et al.*, 1990; Cutler, 1993). It is frequently observed that these ideals are not universally shared by people from other cultures (Miles, 1981; Chan, 1986; Correa, 1989). Chan (1986) notes that the inclusion of parents in the special education process may be interpreted by many Asians as a sign of their child's extreme learning or behavior deviance. Further, Miles (1981) suggests that the emphasis on equality may contradict the fundamental tenet of the value-inequity by reason of birth, caste, skin pigmentation, economic and social status, family reputation, etc. held in many cultures.

The challenge of culturally relevant partnerships between families and professionals is no simple task. Many dilemmas are inherent in the process, not the least of which is the responsibility and duty of professionals to reflect and implement mainstream culture. Additionally, families and communities in developing countries have very different attributes and functions than those in Western society (Buchner, 1994). Thus, it is unrealistic to assume that developing countries can duplicate special education services available to students in Western countries or that it would be appropriate to do so. According to Buchner (1994), the success or failure of many efforts to import Western practices is directly related to how well the planners have been able to remove themselves from Western constructs and beliefs and replace them with culturally appropriate solutions.

In developing countries, the child with a disability is primarily the responsibility of the family or extended family (Kibria, 1994). Lacking the financial support for the special education programs available in Western societies, developing countries are utilizing community-based rather than institutionally-based approaches to serve families and individuals with disabilities (O'Toole, 1993; Miles, 1990). These approaches mobilize resources already available in the community, drawing on the strengths of the family and community much like the current notion of family systems and strengthening perspectives. As Western societies increasingly value natural, community-based supports and services for families and children with disabilities, professional could greatly benefit from a dialog of culturally-relevant and appropriate practices between Western and developing countries.

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The 5 Cs: Concepts, Content, Curriculum, Communication and Cognition

Evelyn Freedman, M.Ed.

The most pressing current challenge that educators face is to design a curriculum that will educate all the children of today, no matter how diverse their backgrounds are for the unknown future of tomorrow. However, one basic issue is clear. Only children who have good communication abilities, can use oral language well, who are highly literate, have good interpersonal abilities, and can think abstractly will be able to fully participate in a world where knowledge increases and technology brings us all closer together. It seems an impossible task but only if educators attempt the 'obvious' which is to try and teach The 'obvious' all students individually. The alternative is to look 'Beyond the Obvious' for similarities between students rather than at the differences.

Children are born with the potential to develop three major functions that are an integral part of their 'humanness.' These are cognition, language, and affect. Studies of the development of these functions have shown that developmental milestones in all of these functions appear to universal, although, there is a range of development and some children exhibit significant delays in reaching these milestones. Vygotsky (1962) suggested that although cognition, language, and affect are distinct functions, they are in fact interrelated and interdependent. Children who have primary language developmental delays would have concurrent cognitive deficits and may exhibit emotional or behavioral difficulties as well because of how they will interpret the world. As an example, several authors have identified that of the children who were referred for psychiatric evaluation, had concurrent developmental language delays (Baltaxe & Simmons, 1990; Cantwell & Baker, 1987, 1991).

Yet it becomes apparent after extensive readings on development and having the experience of teaching diverse student populations, that the similarities in development do not extend passed an age range of ten to thirteen years. At this stage it appears as if there are two pathways for continued development. (Although, the foundations for these two pathways begin to emerge at a much earlier age.) The one pathway occurs when children change from concrete to abstract thinking, in the other pathway, children do not make such a transition and plateau at this stage in language development and remain concrete thinking as well (Feuerstein, 1980; Freedman, 1991; Schumaker & Deschler, 1988; Wiig & Semel, 1976 and 1980). Studies of semi-literate or literate societies suggest that development to the concrete level is the normal or natural developmental pattern. It does not suggest that this pattern has anything to do with intelligence or potential, but rather that literacy and formal education leads development into the abstract thinking (Luria, 1976; Ong, 1983 and Egan, 1987). This reinforces the idea of inter-relatedness of vocabulary acquisition, development of language, literacy, and abstract concepts.

In highly literate societies, educators of middle and high school students, who themselves are abstract thinkers, make suppositions about development and about the abstract concepts and knowledge base that they believe students would have acquired by the time they reach these grades. When the discrepancy between the teacher's assumptions and what the students actually know and understand is large, these students claim that school has little meaning.

The ability to look for similarities rather than differences is crucial and fundamental to the development of abstract concepts. It is only when we categorize by similar relevant features that categories emerge. It is only when the common features of milk, water, alcohol, and mercury as substances that take the shape of the container emerge that the abstract category of liquids arises.

Children who remain concrete thinkers may equate the word liquid with water in all instances, as if these two words are synonymous and then use water wherever a liquid is mentioned. The ability to categorize by similarities, irrespective of context, is crucial in learning from experience, in adapting knowledge from one context to another, and in sequencing, logical thought, cause and effect relationships. In short the ability to compare is the most fundamental of all cognitive functions. Teaching that involves categorization tasks pushes children towards abstract thinking, ability to categorize and be successful at school irrespective of the teaching method and content.

Since we don't just think, but rather about things, for many students the content is also highly significant since this is where the difficulties lie in meeting the grade level expectations in the middle grades. The author then undertook to identify the fundamental concepts English speaking children in North American schools are expected to have developed by the time they reach a middle school level. Using the idea that the words of our language reflect the concepts (Vygotsky, 1962), the words from several children's dictionaries were categorized by conceptual meaning, for example, the word 'give' carries the concept of relationship between two people. It is also a word that is closely related in meaning to the words 'donate,' 'bestow,' and 'award,' yet each of these words carry highly significant differences in terms of the concepts of relationships and of what is being given. Several main conceptual categories emerged, with many sub categories. The author, together with Elisabeth Wiig, then developed teaching formats and this was published in *The Word Book* (Wiig & Freedman, 1993).

What also emerged was that the concepts as reflected in the categories are, essentially, unchangeable, and form an integral part of the knowledge base that all educated children need, irrespective of language barriers, if they are to understand how the 'world works.' As an example, the physical nature of the world both in a geographic and scientific sense will not change, even though our knowledge and understanding of specific phenomena may increase in depth and width. The world will continue to turn, and water will continue to freeze and boil. No matter where a child lives in the world and all children need to understand these concepts if they are to make sense of time changes, geographic conventions and the notions involved in space travel. There are many similar concepts, which are too numerous to mention in an article of this length.

Then by extracting concepts and associated vocabulary according to subject areas and directly teaching to these concepts by means of categorization tasks, and extending this to all formats of oral and written language proved highly successful. The gaps these students had narrowed quickly and their misconceptions were clarified. Many made 'the jump to higher ground' as suggested by Bruner (1983). Perhaps the greatest success was reflected in the comments from students who said they were learning things that they had never understood before.

The suggested teaching formats can be easily incorporated into the regular curriculum. It benefits all the students in the class as it deals with higher level conceptualization, stimulates thinking, and follows the natural developmental process. Further, it does as Vygotsky (1978) suggested when he said that instruction should be ahead of development, that it should serve an awakening function for cognitive processes that have not yet matured, and that training ought to be directed at the buds instead of the fruits of development. Students who emerge from formal education as highly literate, abstract thinkers, will then be armed with a clearer and organized understanding of the world, in both concrete and abstract terms and will then be able to meet the challenges of the New Horizons, whatever they will be.

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Responsibility Increases Self Esteem

Roger A. Fazzone, Ed.D.

The Responsibility Increases Self Esteem (R.I.S.E.) program is a highly structured system that is carefully crafted to highlight a student's major responsibilities during a typical day. At the end of each class period and activity period, the youngster is graded as to preparedness, effort, and social interaction. At the end of the day the grades are delivered to the youngster's mentor. The mentor discusses progress with the student during regularly scheduled twice a week appointments. At the end of the week, a committee assigns the student to a level depending on his or her performance. The higher the level, the greater the rewards or privileges. Eventually, students may attain the highest level which consists of a contract whereby they agree to meet all their major responsibilities and they no longer require the daily grading. But the R.I.S.E. program does more than just reinforce responsible behavior, it provides a structure for relationships to grow. Through the mentoring system, the relationship between parent, student, and teacher may be built. The natural extension of this program is moving deeper into an understanding of the role of the student, the role of the parent, and the role of the teacher in the total educational process.

The last seven years of the R.I.S.E. program have been both encouraging and rewarding. Faculty report an increase in on-task classroom behavior and a greater student interest in learning. A review of student progress reports indicates more than 95% of the students are actively involved in the learning process and show excellent signs of motivation in the great majority of their classes. While this success must be shared with the emphasis on learning styles and the efforts of an outstanding faculty, there is no doubt the R.I.S.E. Program has provided the structure and atmosphere whereby excellent teaching is accepted by motivated students.

Residential faculty support these observations and add comments regarding increased student responsibility in the dormitories and during the wide variety of evening enrichment activities. The structure provided in dormitory life is an important ingredient in the process leading to personal responsibility and independence. As students demonstrate a mastery of the tasks of daily living and learn to live in a cooperative manner with others, they begin to recognize they are in control of their lives. This sense of control has led to increased feelings of competence and eventually a more positive view of themselves. Students are excited about the incentive system and are actively striving for success.

Perhaps the most important aspect of the program thus far, is the warm and trusting relationships students have developed with their mentors. These twice per week meetings have offered students the support of an adult who is concerned about their progress and well being. Further, the knowledge that each mentor has close communication with parents regarding academic, social, and personal progress of students is an important message. The fact the Maplebrook faculty and staff work closely with students, parents, and other professionals to facilitate growth and development is crucial to a student's success.

Measured growth in self-esteem, as judged from the results of the Prout Stromer Test, has presented us with several interesting issues. Although the majority of the students experienced a rise in scores on the testing, statistical significance has not been achieved. Individual differences appear to have been influenced by reading comprehension, a desire to present oneself in a particular light, and the nature of the test itself. Current plans are to examine other instruments that may control these factors and yield a more accurate measure of student perceived self esteem. Experience has demonstrated that reliance on traditional paper and pencil measures are less than effective in assessing academic achievement in students with learning differences. Perhaps this would also be true of paper and pencil tests of self esteem. It appears reasonable that measures that include observations from significant others would serve to enhance the accuracy of assessment.

During this period, Maplebrook staff have conducted workshops and training sessions for better than 800 educators. These workshops have explained the theory and implementation of the R.I.S.E. Program. The comments and feedback are wonderfully complimentary and positive, but an objection is always heard–"the R.I.S.E. Program relies on intense communication among faculty, staff, student, and parents, and we don't have the time." While I wholeheartedly agree with the former, I must vigorously challenge the latter.

Communication is the process of passing information from one person to another. Schools possess two distinct channels–the formal and the informal. Each carries messages from one person to another downward, upward, across, and diagonally. Further, the communication can be written or oral. For communication to be most effective, the element of purpose must be present. There must be a recognition that the communication is necessary to facilitate the growth and development of each student. There is no doubt that communication is the key to the success of the R.I.S.E. Program. In order to communicate effectively with all individuals sharing the responsibility for a student's program, time is most assuredly a factor. In our system, time for meetings necessary for communicating with students, parents, and colleagues is built into the formal structure. Summary sheets, meeting times, and other structures have been developed to facilitate quality communication. Any school committed to a system reflecting an accepted philosophical premise can provide the structures necessary to actuate the agreed upon premise.

To do so requires a commitment to change, extensive re-training, and quality personnel. Therefore, an objection regarding time possesses no meaning–one simply makes the time required to achieve quality results.

Independent boarding schools are about much more than strong academics. Those of us who have spent considerable time around such places claim that character education is in the very fiber of our schools. This is true of the finest independent schools in our country. In a special needs school like Maplebrook, this aspect of our program must be given substantial attention and thought.

Several years ago when we created the Responsibility Increases Self Esteem (R.I.S.E.) program, our major goal was to assist our students in succeeding in mastering the tasks of everyday living–of getting to class on time, being prepared, expending effort, and interacting appropriately with others. This program has been, by all standards of measure, a major success. Parents, faculty, and staff have indicated noticeable behavior changes that reflect growth in positive perceptions of self. Test scores, both at Maplebrook and by independent examiners, have demonstrated tremendous growth in self esteem.

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Work With a Child and its Family in the Early Intervention Centre

(no the example of the Early Intervention Centre in Leszno- Poland)

Malgorzata Sekulowiez

> "To flit secretly we do not want any more,
> open the life for us,
> it is not enough to set ajar the door."

Most scientists (Bandet, Bonnand, Pichcredu, & Zago 1990; Ostrowski 1985; Popielarska 1989) pay attention that the factors which influence on the possibility of the origin of different disorders in the central nervous system and its malfunctioning at children, can concern the whole pregnancy and labour. In the first three-month-long period of pregnancy such factors as these below can damage central nervous system:

- physical factors (ion radiation, thermal injury, mechanical injury);
- infection factors (viruses, bacteria, parasite);
- insufficiency of nutritive substances during pregnancy;
- height inhibitors and specific antymetabolic substances; and
- hormonal substances, drugs and alcohol.

In the second three-month-long period of pregnancy other teratogenic factors are:

- serological conflict (Rh factor and main blood groups), and
- infection of syphilis *(treponema pallidum)*

According to *Czocha'nska*, in 25% of all cases of the reasons of organical damages of central nervous system are: pathological labour progress and pathological after labour time. The disorders are connected with asphyxia (anoxemia) and mechanical damage.

The consequences of factors mentioned above can be various–ranging from mental disorders and deep development disorders with certain neurological syndromes to partial and fragmentary disorders of brain working.

Not all disorders can be noticed in the first weeks or months of a baby life. In many cases there can be very subtle symptoms. But even the slightest abnormality seen by parents, specially by mothers, should be very precisely observed. There are such symptoms as: sleep disorders, thirsty, intensive movingness, scream attacks, unexpected fearful reactions, strange behaviours, unilateral interactions, insensibility, and routine behaviors.

When parents are alerted by abnormal child's behavior, they go to a doctor, and frequently the child's problem is underestimated. Doctors suggest waiting, because they think it is too early to diagnose. Many times the diagnosis made by doctors is not univocal.

In case of deep easily seen damages and disabilities of a child, parents are told to give a child to a special care institution (to get rid of the child) as the best solution to child's disability. I absolutely do not agree with it. Nowadays you can quite easily learn of Therapeutic Work Centers, which aim is versatile therapy and help at the very beginning. This help is mainly focused on making a correct diagnosis and then comprehensive stimulation of damaged brain.

Each human being has got five senses: the sense of hearing, vision, touch, taste, and smell. All the information which is gained comes to the brain through one of these senses. The information is remembered in one of or more of billions of neurons that build up the brain. When the brain damage takes place and nervous cells die, then the information contained in them dies too. As a result the loss of some functions is observed. It is unlikely that all the brain cells responsible for a certain function will be damaged. What will happen when we provide a lot of new information to the senses? Will the neuron networks work again? Will damaged neurons be prompted and will their interactions take place? They are very rankling questions.

A child whose brain was damage before or just after the labour should be comprehensively stimulated, because nobody knows all the brain ability to compensate the loss. It is certain that the sooner the therapy begins the better chances for partial or entire recovery are.

The Early Intervention Centre in Leszno is a place which is to help each child (to the age of 7 or 8) with development disorders. The Centre offers to parents:

- total diagnosis of psycho-motorial development of a child;
- continuos, multispecialistic consulting for families;
- individual therapy;
- work in small groups which stimulates development and need of each child; and
- possibilities of changing experiences for parents who have the same or similar problems.

Work in the Center - it is a close co-cooperation of many specialists, such as: neurologist, a psychiatrist, a psychologist, an educator-therapist, logopedist, rehabilitative person, and an orthopaedist. The work with a child and its family starts from a very precisely made diagnosis which allows to prepare an individual programme of therapeutic work. To prepare such a programme it is necessary to know:

- level of child's cognitive structures (it allows to adapt actions to a level of child's development, to answer the questions what kind of information lacks, and how it can be eliminated);
- it is important to know how the information is transformed on the certain levels of a cognitive chain;
- knowledge concerning disorders of sensory integration is needed; and
- it is necessary to know the structure of habits and behaviors of a child and the principles of their shaping.

It is a child who to appoint the range and the essence of our work, and our knowledge of neuropsychiatry, development psychology, special education allows us to adjust common work. The individual therapeutic programmme is modified while consulting every month.

We use all known methods of therapeutic work. Children with cerebral palsy and children with Downs Syndrome are stimulated with Vojta's method, NDT - BOBATH method, and water massage. Psychologists and educators use the method of sensory integration elements of TEACCH method, art therapy. We also use Maria Montessori's method (modified because of money shortage). Plus education exercise, M. Frostig programme of education exercises are also used. A therapist develops children's self-dependence through exercises of self-service, gaining the ability of playing different social roles, they develop individual hobbies of the handicapped.

The work in the Early Intervention Centre are not only therapeutic sessions, but advice for parents as well; advice how to work with a child. It is work with the whole child's family, specially with the mother–because she is mainly responsible for care and education.

When mothers come to the Centre for the first time, they are in similar psychological conditions–far from people, sad, nervous, and focused on problems concerning their handicapped children. They come to the Centre because they want to get professional help and assistance for their children. Their expectancies are precisely defined–they want to find out about their children's disability and to get instructions how to work with a child to eliminate or partly eliminate disorders. However, mothers do not know that they first of all need help. This help is not only getting full information on the child, but it is social support given by people who work in the Centre and by other parents of handicapped children as well. When parents are in the Centre they have time to talk about their trouble. The problems are different starting from material situation through daily life problems to unemployment. For many mothers the biggest problem is to learn being aware that they have disabled children. For the others–loosening family bonds and difficulties in adapting to new conditions–the problems are. It is often seen that the father or older siblings do not accept a handicapped child and they do not want to adapt to this new situation. Therefore, a role of a family therapist is very important and responsible. The task which the therapist has to cope with are very versatile. This person serves not only psychological assistance but social and legal help and consulting as well. Healthy (not handicapped) siblings are very helpful in the process of therapy. In many cases they (siblings) replace tired mother, recurrently they have a good contact with a disable child and, owing to it, the therapy is more effective. Moreover, such a situation influences on shaping correct relations in a family.

As I can observe, intensive, everyday work with a handicapped child is effective. We are aware that the regress can occur, however, the observed tendency is rather optimistic. Parents are more and more a consolidated group. Perhaps the reason is that every year we organize a two-week-long rehabilitative camp, which unite us in the problem of rehabilitation of disabled children. Our biggest problems are financial problems. We are rescued by unnamed sponsors who are our great help.

All our activities are to liquidate passiveness, addiction, isolation, and despair and they are aimed to active development, acceptance, help, support, and realization of personal plans.

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Early Childhood Program Development:

A Comprehensive, Integrated Approach for Diverse Cultures

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As more and more countries develop integrated service delivery programs for young children with and without disabilities and their families, it is critical that they be based on sound theoretical principles and practices that support and represent the values, cultures, and beliefs of children and families. These values and beliefs will need to include the celebration of one's own cultural tenets yet also include movement toward biculturalism, multiculturalism and/or globalism, and global competency (Banks, 1993).

Ignoring the culture of a community, region, and/or nation as an underlying foundation within a comprehensive program is detrimental to the further components to be described. Although a myriad of cultures and values are represented across our many global entities, the development of a conceptual framework may assist program administrators to support the education of all children and yet can be adapted towards the contextual and cultural variations that exist across the hallway from one setting to another, across a specific state or region, and/or across the world.

Conceptual Framework

Peterson (1987) outlines a conceptual framework that provides a comprehensive process for program development in the United States and one that might be useful for other nations to consider. Included are the following dimensions and components. First, every program needs to identify the ***values and beliefs*** of the culture and the consumers of their early childhood programs. Along with these articulated values and beliefs are the ***theoretical*** insights generated by research on how children with and without disabilities learn and how and to what degree families can and want to be involved (e.g., partnerships, training, volunteering). Through the blending of values, beliefs and theory, a program can then generate a ***philosophical understanding*** which then acts as the foundation for further program development.

Second, specified ***goals and objectives*** are articulated that are aligned with the previously mentioned values, beliefs, theory, and philosophy. These stepping stones truly undergird and drive the remaining components.

Third, programs will need to identify the specific units of analysis (DeStefano, 1990) that define their particular early childhood program. These units may also be referred to as ***practices or components***. These components may often be driven by recommended practices as determined or selected by the culture, stakeholders and consumers, professional organizations, or the unique context of the early childhood setting. Peterson (1987) identified seven components of an early childhood special education program including the following: services and service delivery approach; curriculum and materials; instructional methodology; child assessment/program evaluation procedures; staff composition, organization, and roles; staff training and preparation; and required resources and facilities.

It should be noted that these seven components may not be considered appropriate for all settings. Therefore each program will need to consider what are the specific practices that drive their early childhood setting and define each of these. Other examples of components more recently embraced by early childhood programs in the United States have included family-centered practices, cultural promotion, inclusive opportunities, and integrated teaming (DeStefano, Maude, Crews, & Mabry, 1992). These refined components were driven by policy and research (P.L. 99-457; Dunst & Trivette, 1989). Again, each setting will want to define those practices and components that are particular to their own program. A key element to consider, as supported by Peterson (1987), is that no matter what the practices or components are, there must be internal consistency between and across all components and strong alignment with the foundation or philosophical/theoretical underpinnings.

Cultural Considerations And Implementation

As this process occurs, participants must consider all potential children and their religious, socio-economic, racial, ethnic, and cultural beliefs as well as gender specific concerns. Programs that do not ensure respect of minority populations will fail to adequately serve the enrolled children and their families. Banks (1993) suggests that there is a need for a "new paradigm that can provide an adequate explanation of the complex factors interacting in the development and expressions of the racial attitudes, preferences, and self-identification of young children" (p. 245). Perhaps, Washington best describes the goal of weaving cultural considerations into the fabric of early childhood programs. She states, ". . . diversity is not just about numbers; it is about imprinting into the mind of every child . . . that he or she is loved, valued, and included" (1995, p. 180). As program developers specify their beliefs about children and families, serious consideration must be given to all children and all families, not just those of the majority culture as well as how providers will implement curriculum to support globalism aspects.

In an effort to accomplish this goal, in the United States, the fields of early childhood and early childhood special education have developed recommended guidelines to support good practices for young children or to frame the specific components or practices as previously described. The National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC), the largest professional organization for serving young children ages birth through age eight, has identified practices deemed to be "developmentally appropriate" or appropriate for the developmental age and individual interest of a given child (Bredekamp, 1997; Bredekamp & Rosegrant, 1992). The Division for Early Childhood (DEC) of the Council for Exceptional Children (CEC), the largest professional group for serving young children with disabilities and their families, developed a series of recommended practices in 1993. However, as Odom, McLean, Johnson & LaMontagne (1995) reported, there continues to be a discrepancy between recommended practices and their identified use by practitioners. Knowing what practices should be does not ensure that they occur in programs serving young children.

Individuals charged with developing early childhood and early childhood special education programs must examine their own beliefs about learning and teaching, and the minority and majority cultures. As programs are designed, internal consistency between components is essential. Program staff should represent the diversity of the population, live in the community and provide input into every component of service delivery. Family members of children served from both the majority and minority cultures should participate as full partners with the professional staff in developing and implementing the program.

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The Roles of Paraeducators in Special Education

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The need for paraeducators in special education is widely recognized. Diversity in the classroom, more specifically increased numbers of students with disabilities in general education classrooms has made the paraeducator an invaluable member of the inclusion team. Inclusion has indeed brought about an increasing reliance on paraeducators who might be responsible for direct support and instruction of students with special needs in general education classrooms. The good track record of paraeducators in special education classrooms and the wide range of settings that can be served are also regarded as reasons for the increase in the use of paraeducators (Frith & Lindsey, 1982). In addition, in rural areas special education teacher shortages may be acute and students with a variety of disabling conditions may have to be taught in one class. As a result, paraeducators have been invaluable not only because of assistance to the teacher, but also because "the longevity of paraprofessionals exceeded that of the certified teacher to whom they were assigned" (Palma, 1994, p. 46). Paraeducators are therefore often the important link between community and teachers in rural areas.

The purpose of this presentation is to take a critical look at the changing role of paraeducators in special education in the United States–their duties, training and supervision, job satisfaction, and recommendations.

Duties

Teachers' aides, as paraeducators were known when they were introduced into classrooms in the fifties, were assigned duties such as preparing materials and monitoring students in the cafeteria and study halls (Pickett, 1996). Pickett defined a paraeducator as a "person whose position is either instructional in nature or who delivers direct services to students and/or their parents; and who serves in a position for which a teacher or another professional has ultimate responsibility for the design and implementation of individual education programs or other services" (Pickett, 1986, p.2). The roles of paraeducators have clearly changed from that of "teachers' helpers" (Jones & Bender, 1993), a change that is reflected in the term "paraeducators" as they are referred to currently.

Paraeducators of the nineties are not only actively involved in instruction and the delivery of education and related services, but are also required to perform their duties at higher levels of independence (Pickett, 1996). Paraeducators are currently assigned more responsibilities and often even highly technical duties. The inclusion of medically fragile students, for example, is an issue which presents a challenge; this may prompt school systems to delegate highly technical roles upon paraeducators (Bartlett, Parette, & Holder-Brown, 1994). In rural districts paraeducators may be given even more responsibilities, such as working closely with the school nurse to provide care for students with chronic illnesses or disabilities (Pickett, 1996).

Training and Supervision

At the present time in the United States, paraeducators are not required to complete any formal training; requirements are typically age 18 and have a high school diploma or equivalency. A lack of training does not only impact competencies, but also perceptions; thus, paraeducators are often being perceived as unskilled and of low status because they do not receive training (Pickett, 1986). Burnout among paraeducators, as well as stagnation because of a lack of incentives for professional development, can also result due to inadequate training and preparation (Frith & Mims, 1985). Although different levels of training (based on what a paraeducator would be doing in a classroom) should be the ultimate objective, basic training is what is needed right now (Pickett, 1996).

On-the-job training of paraeducators, which is probably 95% of the training paraeducators receive (Pickett, 1996), is usually the responsibility of the teacher. However, training and supervising other adults is a role teachers are often not prepared for; not in preservice nor inservice teacher education.

Job Satisfaction

Paraeducators choose their careers because they enjoy working with children. This was confirmed by a 1994 survey (Passaro, Pickett, Latham, & HongBo, 1994) and as recently as 1997 (Yssel & Hadadian, 1997). However, results of the former study also indicated the attrition rate of paraeducators to be even higher than that of special education teachers; the greatest contributing factor reportedly being a lack of opportunity to advance (Passaro et al., 1994). May and Marozas (1981) reported on high turnover rates, low status and pay, and a minimum of education and training for paraeducators. In their study of burnout among paraeducators, Frith and Mims (1985) listed the following factors as potential causes: stagnation, lack of career advancement, inadequate training, undefined role descriptions, lack of support from authority figures, misconceptions about the roles of others, poor salaries, and lack of recognition. This article was published twelve years ago and yet not much has changed. According to the results of a recent survey of 1,100 paraeducators in special education in a midwestern state 72% expressed satisfaction with their jobs; however, factors such as a need for training and certification, complaints about poor salaries and lack of benefits, no recognition, a lack of support and direction from supervising teachers and administrators, stress, and a desire for more responsibility were identified as areas of concern (Yssel & Hadadian, 1997).

Recommendations

It is of utmost importance to connect the recognition of the importance of paraeducators with a need for training; more challenging responsibilities and expectations should be supported by comprehensive training. In several states distance learning provides the needed opportunities for paraeducators to attend training sessions.

In addition to training, research should focus on any factors that may have an impact on job satisfaction. Evidence from results of survey that program design (self-contained classes vs. inclusionary programs) may have an effect on job satisfaction (Yssel & Hadadian, 1997). Other factors that might also have an impact are the effects of working with a specific exceptionality or the degree of the disabling condition, and the support from supervising teachers and administrators (Frith & Mims, 1985).

Teacher education programs must address the issue of supervision; student teachers often express a concern about having to supervise a paraeducator who is not only much older, but who also might have had considerable experience in the classroom. Preservice teachers clearly need coursework that would provide the necessary foundation and preparation. Incorporating this issue into coursework prior to their student teaching experience would allow inexperienced teachers to feel comfortable with their roles as supervisors of paraeducators. Collaboration is another issue that needs emphasis; poor communication or interpersonal conflicts would impede effective instruction and the students would ultimately suffer the consequences (Polloway &

Patton, 1997). The need for training, preservice as well as inservice, of paraeducators in special education should receive immediate attention.

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Turning Cultural Diversity Into Multiculturalism

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It has become chic, avant-garde, and quite fashionable to boast about living in a culturally diverse neighborhood, and participating in such events, and even attending a church or religious facility which is so constituted. But such a claim is a long distance from actuality; multiculturalism, a way far away from integration. Merely because people come together, interact, and share the same common environment, or even have meaningful transcultural relationships, does not mean that they have achieved multiculturalism.

One can hypothetically locate and visualize culturally diverse families living on the same street in a city where the residents visit one another's home, and their children play in the same sandboxes, and are members of the same Brownie and Cub Scout groups. There even may be racially mixed marriages among the people on the street, and, yet, this is not multiculturalism.

This thesis can be advanced forward to the ultimate, whereby the children of these culturally diverse families go to the same neighborhood school and return home to play together. They may see their parents interacting on a level of comparable, peer equality. But even this would not constitute multiculturalism.

Multiculturalism is a psychic, intellectual, psychological, sociological, and spiritual phenomenon. It is internalized and actualized in daily living. It is something that you know, feel, believe, and do. It does not require a defense or an apology, it is an easy exercise of conviction, and the natural urge to explore and encounter differences. Thus, when youth from this hypothetical street enter the fourth (4th) grade, they will have a picture of acceptance and personal appreciation in their minds of this particular vignette of life. And they will believe this to be life expressed in the larger arena. But such pictures can be easily erased, because the information to participate in and enjoy such behavior will not be reinforced by the broader society to support such a notion of cross ethnic, racial, cultural equity.

Ironically, it is the very school that these hypothetical youth attend, the institution which should provide the academic defense for social equality, which fails to give them the foundation for such a continued relationship. Thus, school, the microcosm of society, unveils a curriculum which perpetuates superiority, inferiority, ethnocentrism, and racism. And, correspondingly, illuminates and expresses the polarization in society.

It is in school, unfortunately, where youth practices and experiences segregation, and it is from this source he takes and makes ready the building materials which he has received to build and repair social structures. It is here where alienation is designed by curriculum and initiated by the most revered and respected persons in his life, excluding his own parents, his kindergarten through 5th grade teachers. Later, in middle and high school, as a result of the debasement of self esteem of "youth of color," segregation is self imposed. Ethnic and racial groups find their own cultural and racial security as they seek comfort zones. Segregation is taught by omission and commission and through the presentation of a bias, myopic curriculum.

With such adversarial institutional opponents, one can see how youth, who live on the hypothetical street portrayed, seemingly, with all of the advantages and opportunities for easy, unrestrained racial relationships, can begin to pull apart from one another. School gives no substance to sustain them, it even loosens and endeavors to reduce the glue which once held them fast in their latency stages of development.

A curriculum that does not profess that all people are equal, that does not include or chronicle the experiences of other ethnic groups, but only those of the dominant culture, and does not permit a forum for the furtherance of self-esteem for every student, is violent in content and intent. Such a curriculum is designed to destroy the psychic fiber and soul substance which is essential for the individual to establish adequate self worth and to prosper maximally from a school experience. This is why children from this hypothetical family, living in this most desired neighborhood, will have fond memories of their early youth, being good friends, but their later years will find them to be only friendly. School will have robbed them of the possibility of becoming fast, life long friends.

It is a multicultural curriculum which lifts the potential of all students, guided and aided by teachers who are warm, sensitive, and caring. It is teachers, who exemplify by their own lives that they prefer a multicultural society and model such behavior among their culturally different peers, who cause and encourage students to so diversify their relationships.

Being loved and able to see and defend self as adequate and equal to all, youth experience the desire to achieve full potential for self and significant others in their lives. A society that is not multicultural is one without a center, has no synthesis, cultural commonness to hold it together, and one that does not command the collective force of energy. Cultural diversity is only a collection of individuals and ethnic groups living in a common environment. It takes multiculturalism to make a culturally diverse group a neighborhood, community, and nation.

It is difficult for ethnic groups to come together, or gel and become multicultural without enticement. They must be promised that they will not have to surrender their ethnicity, or racial identity, through assimilation. For all groups to come over their "ethnic bridge" to meet at a place in the middle, common cultural ground, they must be assured that on the trip back across the bridge, into their own cultural and ethnic groups, their transition will be one of ease and will be unencumbered, erstwhile they will be reluctant or fearful of making the journey. Further, they must be promised that having taken the trip over the bridge, into the mass ethnic diverse gathering, they will receive all of the promises and rewards made and given to those of the dominant culture. Evidence of such commitment must be readily forthcoming. Youth must be able to see this full display of acceptance in the mainstream, vertically and horizontally evident in every institutional and corporate structure. While this process is undertaken, which may seem painstakingly slow for those long denied, it can be the hope and promise for only one generation, it will have to be accentuated in cadence for the next one to accept it and continue to believe. If the succeeding generation is to hold firm and persevere in the hope that the promise will be fulfilled, it must be able to show to the coming generation that their wait will be forthcoming with substance and well worth their patience. Unless the conviction expressed and initiated by the dominant culture is vigorously pursued by the power elite, historically, there will be a withdrawal of commitment, and, subsequently, a reluctant acceptance to renegotiate the promise. Should it appear that the promise is being aborted, the agreement surrendered, then the prospect for multiculturalism will receive a serious setback.

School desegregation, given as the substitute for integration, is fraudulent and is now being offered as the substitute for multiculturalism. Desegregation only changes the constellations and configurations of people who are culturally different, not their minds, their will, or their hearts. . .

Using Goal Setting And Career Development To Improve Self Esteem And Academic Success In At-Risk Students

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This paper describes one community's attempt to improve the self esteem and academic success of students in a geographically isolated, First Nations community in northern Canada.

Background

Fort Rae and Edzo are two Dogrib communities located in the Northwest Territories, 110 kilometers north-west of Yellowknife. Fort Rae is connected to Yellowknife by a winding, gravel road that is frozen in winter and muddy in summer.

Until the early 1970s, students from Fort Rae were sent to residential schools in Fort Smith and Yellowknife. By 1971, the chief of the Dogrib, Jimmy Bruneau convinced the Federal government to build a school on Dogrib land. However, surveyors and engineers determined there was no adequate land in Fort Rae so a building site 20 kilometers away in Edzo was chosen. The much smaller community of Edzo emerged as the educational, but not the geographic, centre for the Dogrib. Only a handful of residents moved to the new community. Bussing became a way of life for those in Rae who arose early enough to catch a bus. The remainder stayed at home or attended sporadically.

Grades 1 to 9 were offered in the new Chief Jimmy Bruneau school, although most children stopped attending by grade five. Many others had such sporadic attendance that they didn't ever complete any one year. Formal education as we know it today was not part of the Dogrib culture and therefore was not generally valued by the community. Add to that the many other obstacles to success including the necessity to change from living by internal clocks to mechanical clocks in order to catch the bus; curricula which generally addressed the needs of southern, urban students; lack of Dogrib role models in the local work force; a high level of unemployment in the community; some teachers who did not understand or appreciate the Dogrib culture; and lack of awareness of both students and parents of the opportunities and possibilities available to students who strived for success in school. It was no wonder students did not remain in school.

In 1990, an historic meeting of elders, Dogrib leaders, and educational administrators determined the fate of education in Rae-Edzo. "We want to be strong like two people" (in both the Dogrib and mainstream Canadian cultures). Education suddenly became a rallying cause for community and educators. An elementary school (Kindergarten to grade 7) was to be built in Rae and the grades in Chief Jimmy Bruneau School were to be extended to grade twelve.

In spite of the talk of the importance of schooling, only 14 students completed grade nine in 1991. In September 1991, grade 10 was offered to any student in the community who was 16 years of age or older and who had been out of school for two or more years. One hundred twenty-five registered but most dropped out within the first semester. [Sullivan defines dropout as “anyone who left secondary school for whatever reason prior to graduating” (1988, p.1)]. However, some students were successful and moved to the eleventh and then later, the twelfth grade. This pattern repeated itself several times during the first few years. Growth was slow.

Problems Identified

By September, 1993, it looked like 30 students could graduate the following June. However, their numbers plummeted as the year progressed and by February only a handful remained. Even those remaining had little confidence in themselves as students in high school and even less in their abilities to compete in the work force or in college. And none could articulate reachable career goals.

While the school was struggling with providing students with a relevant education and keeping students in school, the community too was undergoing change. Diamonds had been discovered within the Dogrib lands; Land claim issues were being resolved. Communities throughout the Northwest Territories were gaining local control over previously held territorial portfolios. The Treaty 11 Council published a list of over 200 job opportunities anticipated in the next five years, all of which would provide jobs for well educated, trained personnel.

Intervention

School officials and community leaders were concerned. The long hoped for graduates were not contributing to the community in the manner anticipated. Meetings were held and priorities revisited. A counselor was attached to the dwindling number of prospective graduates. Using a "College Survival" curriculum (Dean, 1994), the students met twice weekly to develop "living away from home" skills. Such topics as budgeting, nutrition, sewing, first aid, meal planning, study skills, and safety were studied each session. Actual food preparation, sharing a meal, and clean up occurred at least once weekly. The students formed a cohesive group and no further attrition occurred. But most barely met their graduation requirements and after graduation, the students' progress and motivation appeared to come to a standstill.

The two graduates who did go on to post secondary institutions soon returned home. Most graduates did not even look for work. Expectations had been raised that high school graduation would open doors for them, but they seemed unwilling to knock at the door. Anomie was prevalent among the graduates. The following year, history seemed to repeat itself:

numerous drop outs and minimal results from students who did complete. Again, a few students were accepted for further education and, similar to the previous year, again students returned home. But one student remained. She was the only student who articulated her goal before graduation, "I'm going to be a teacher."

Is there a relationship between goal setting and staying in school? Does a relationship exist between goal setting and committing one's self to college? Radwanski (1987) suggests a relationship between short range goals and immediate rewards. Students with short term goals tended to grasp available low paying jobs and drop out of school. If students were encouraged to develop realistic long term goals, would they remain in school? Would they pursue those goals past graduation? Certainly nothing would be lost by trying to encourage goal setting.

It appeared that a general deficit of knowledge about opportunities as well as their lack of sense of purpose and confidence was holding students from reaching out towards interesting career paths. Senior students in the school were exposed to a barrage of information to help them narrow the focus of their efforts in their search for careers. "College Survival" was revamped, this time to stress decision making and goal setting as well as improving self esteem.

Grade 12 students were exposed to many personality and learning style inventories; interest surveys; skills and values sorting; and time management strategies. They participated in workshops that honed skills in resume writing, effective communications, report writing, decision making, and goal setting; and in information workshops about colleges, a variety of careers, job opportunities, financial assistance, and the opportunity to take part in job shadowing experiences. They learned skills in accessing information in the library, how to skim books, and how to write a bibliography. And they cooked. Individual assistance with school course work was also provided.

A tutor was hired to work with the grade twelve's. Study groups were organized. Students worked with the tutor and each other, well into the evenings. It looked like many of them would complete their course work and pass their exams, but would they go to college? A few had picked up applications to colleges, but even fewer had sent them in. Were they afraid of the complexity and unfamiliarity of post secondary institutions, or were they afraid that they could not do the work required in a new setting? Both it seemed.

Because Rae-Edzo is an isolated community and travel from the north to southern cities not common, most students had never visited, let alone seen, a college, vocational school, or university. Aware that fear of the unknown could be exacerbating student's resistance to attending college, the idea of a tour of colleges and universities was presented to the students. Would they like to visit a few campuses? The answer was a resounding "yes." A carrot was dangled before them: students who were passing the courses necessary for graduation would have the opportunity to take part in the college and university exploration.

The post secondary institutions provided informed guides and speakers; they guided the students through student dormitories, into lecture theatres, gyms, swimming pools, student support centres, research laboratories, day cares, and cafeterias. They walked students from classroom to classroom; provided them with course outlines, descriptions of programs, and listings of social and cultural opportunities. Workshops on using the library and its many resources were provided. The guides told stories of their own experiences at college or university;

what they found challenging and how they overcame obstacles. Stories were told. Experiences shared. And the excitement grew.

At the end of the first visit of our "tour," the light in the eyes of two students shone brighter than ever before. They had found their heart's desire, but could they still get in? Were they too late? Or would the brightness fade on their return home and prevent them from following through with the necessary paper work? Several other college and technical schools ignited interest in other students and by the time they all returned home all were allowing excitement to enter their thoughts.

Students were encouraged to discuss and debate the merits of each of the institutions. When they finished their discussion students were prompted to prioritize their choices. Later, students with similar college interests were grouped with each other and together they decided which institution they would pursue. Students were encouraged to partner with a friend as they journeyed to higher education.

Six of the twelve applicants to post secondary education facilities were accepted by them. All six completed the year and are planning their return for a second year. Of the other students, four returned to secondary school to complete matriculation requirements or to up-grade their marks; one is working for the year but has applied for college in the fall; only one graduate is unemployed and not attending school.

Discussion

College Survival in its revamped form appeared to meet the needs of many students. What components were the key? It is difficult to separate them out. Certainly the students gained a variety of much needed skills as they worked together on their College Survival tasks, skills that allowed them more confidence at post secondary institutions.

When the students at post secondary institutions were asked to identify components that lead to their success in completing their high school studies and entering college, their answers all included "College Survival" and "The Trip." Other responses included increasing support from the community, encouragement from friends and relatives, the opportunity to go to college with a friend and having a goal.

When queried if they felt better about themselves now as learners, each one smiled and laughed. One responded, "When I was in grade 12, at first I thought I didn't know anything. Now I know I don't know a lot, but I know how to find out about it. I know I can learn. I didn't know that before." And another responded, "I always thought about what I wanted to do but I didn't have the confidence to declare it. I thought people would laugh at me if I said I wanted to have a health career. So I said nothing. And I really didn't think I could do it. It wasn't until we started doing career exploration that I even knew how to get into Health. And it wasn't until we came here on the tour that I really thought about going away to pursue my goals."

Goal setting, career development, self esteem, and academic success. Are they related? At Chief Jimmy Bruneau High School in the Northwest Territories it seems they are.

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Learning Styles And Culturally Diverse Special Needs Students

Arthur J. More, Ph.D.

Introduction

Cultural diversity is increasingly important in classrooms throughout the world. It is important because of the increasing variety of cultural origins of students in the classrooms of this shrinking world. It is important as teachers better understand the significance of cultural background in learning. It continues to be important in classrooms in which the cultural basis of the curriculum differs significantly from the culture of most of the students (as in most colonial states; among aboriginal communities in North America and Australia; even in states which have broken free of colonization, the cultural dissonance of the colonial curriculum often remains).

In all of these culturally diverse settings the student from the cultural minority is at a disadvantage because what is taught (content) and the way it is taught (pedagogy) may be quite inappropriate. And the special needs student is particularly vulnerable in such a setting because of the cultural inappropriateness of the assessments and the planned interventions.

The purpose of this presentation is to describe an approach which uses learning styles as one component of working with culturally diverse, special needs students. Applications of the approach with Canadian First Nations (Native Indian) students and Australian Aboriginal students are also described.

The presentation describes the links between learning styles and culture, as well between culture and special needs. It also describes steps for a teacher to follow for applying the model.

The primary advantage of using a learning styles approach is that it helps the teacher to identify and build on strengths of the learner–strengths related to cultural background, and strengths that occur despite, or because of, the student's special need. This approach is particularly useful when formal assessments of the students' special needs are not possible, such as geographically isolated areas and developing countries, because it does not rely on external assessment by specialists.

Definition of Learning Styles

There are many definitions of learning styles (More, 1990). Furthermore many authors fail to define the term at all. We have operationally defined two related terms for this paper, the model and the inventories. Ways of learning are the mental processes and instructional settings which a student uses while learning. Mental processes include organizing, perceiving, coding, remembering, and reasoning. Instructional settings include formal or informal, warm or impersonal, cooperative or competitive. Learning styles are ways of learning in which the student has a *strength*, and is more competent.

The Link Between Learning Styles and Culture

Evidence suggests that “ways of learning” and “learning styles” are themselves learned by young children from their primary caregivers. From the caregivers the child learns content and skills; but the child also "learns how to learn" (that is, ways of learning and learning styles). The teaching and learning styles of caregivers have considerable influence on the child's learning styles.

If ways of learning and learning styles are learned from the people who are important to us and if they are learned from our life experiences, then culture clearly has an influence (Guild, 1994; More, 1989; and Vernon, P., Jackson, D., & Messick, S., 1988).

If a child comes from a background in which images are used regularly (many Indigenous cultures) then the child is more likely to develop an imaginal learning style; if a child comes from a culture in which the spoken or written word is used a great deal more than images, that child is more likely to develop a verbal learning style. If a child comes from a culture in which children learn mainly by listening and not interrupting (many Asian and First Nations cultures), that child is likely to develop a more reflective learning style; if the child comes from a culture which encourages interruption, question, trial, error and feedback (Western, middle-class cultures), then the child will be more likely to develop a "trial and feedback" learning style.

Of course, the way in which a child learns best is not determined solely by cultural background. Life experiences and training also have an important effect. Indeed, "within a [cultural] group, the variations among individuals are as great as their commonalities" (Guild, 1991, p. 19). That is, particular styles are more likely to emerge from a particular culture but there will also be significant diversity within each culture.

The Link Between Learning Styles and Special Needs

One of the effective ways of adapting instruction to students with special needs is by accommodating to their individual learning styles. Each student has a profile of relative strengths and relative weaknesses in their "ways of learning." Instructional strategies for working with these students consist primarily of capitalizing on their strengths and improving their weaknesses. This is the case whether the student is developmentally delayed, brain-damaged, visually-impaired, hyperactive, physically disabled, or learning disabled. "The diversity of learning needs found in heterogeneous classes can best be described in terms of learning styles rather than labels" (Brown & Fasano, 1996).

The Link Between Culture and Special Needs

When a student with special needs is also from a cultural minority (that is, when he or she differs culturally from the majority of the students, or when the cultural basis of the curriculum differs significantly from the culture of most of the students) is particularly difficult to deal with. The assessment and the usual interventions may be culturally inappropriate and, therefore, ineffective. In this situation it is particularly helpful to go back to the strengths (learning styles) and weaknesses in the ways of learning of the student to develop an effective support program. Such an approach is also effective when adequate assessments are not possible for economic reasons or because of geographical isolation. The topic is discussed in more depth in the presentation.

The Model

Learning styles are made up of many dimensions and are usually presented on a series of continuums. We focus on the following four dimensions because they seem to have the closest link to cultural differences:

1. Global • • • • • • • • • • •Analytic
2. Verbal • • • • • • • • • • • Imaginal
3. Concrete • • • • • • • • • Abstract
4. Trial & Feedback • •Reflective

Other useful dimensions include:

5. Modality: Sight • • • • Hearing • • • •
   Touch • • • • Smell • • • • Taste
6. Learning Context:
   a. Contextualized • • • • Decontextualized
   b. Affective • • Cognitive • • Psychomotor
7. Instructional Setting
   a. Cooperative • • • • • • • • • • Competitive
   b. Individual • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • Group
   c. Formal • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • Informal
   d. Warm Teacher • • • • • • • Cold Teacher
   e. Active • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • Receptive

The Inventories

The Learning Style Identification Inventory and the Teaching Style Identification Inventories were constructed by first developing, with classroom teachers, a list of behaviours which indicate each learning style in the model. This list was reduced to the 32 best indicators to maximize validity and reliability for use in the Learning Style inventory. This inventory is completed by the classroom teacher after observing the child in regular learning activities for about four weeks. This results in scores on each of the eight learning styles. Exactly the same behaviours were translated into parallel teaching behaviours for the Teaching Style Identification Inventory. The result is that the teacher can identify her own teaching styles and compare them to the learning styles of her students.

Application to the Classroom

A four step process has been developed for using the model as a positive way of assisting minority culture students. Step 1 involves identifying the learning styles of the individual learners. This is done, first, by using the learning style and teaching style inventories. Second, it involves looking at the cultures of the students (traditional and contemporary; homeland and new home) for ways of learning which are more likely to be learning styles; but the teacher must not assume that every individual will have these learning styles. Step 2 entails the teacher matching teaching styles to student learning styles for difficult learning tasks. Step 3 is comprised of strengthening weaker ways of learning, because sometimes the nature of the learning task requires a particular way of learning even if it is not a strength. Step 4 involves helping the students become aware of their strengths and helping them to develop learning style selection strategies.

In each situation where the model has been applied an appropriate teacher resource book has been developed to help teachers through these steps. And although this process was developed for all students in the class, teachers consistently report that it has particularly helped them individualize for the special needs students

Applications with Australian Aboriginal Students

The AbWoL Project involves Aboriginal students in South Australia through the Aboriginal Education Unit of the State Department of Education. Part 1 of the project involved studying the concept of Aboriginal learning styles to determine if it was appropriate. The investigation found a pattern of learning styles that were more likely to be found among Aboriginal students. A wide variety of differences was also found among individual Aboriginal students and among Aboriginal cultures (Hughes & More, 1994). Part 2 of the project was to select a group of teachers who were very effective teachers of Aboriginal students. They were trained in the use of the model. Then they administered the Identification Inventories to their students and revised curriculum units appropriate to the patterns found in Part 1 and the inventory results. Each unit was evaluated, teaching was observed, and teachers interviewed regarding the changes they observed in student learning and motivation. The results are still being evaluated; additional development and evaluation is being carried out. The primary result was that the learning styles approach, used in a culturally appropriate way, was very effective, especially with students who have special needs.

Applications with Canadian First Nations Students

Over the past year, the model has been used in a region in northern Canada which is composed primarily of First Nations students. As a result of geographic isolation there has been very little formal assessment of potential special needs. And many assessment tools are of questionable validity because of their cultural inappropriateness. The approach in this project has been for the teachers to identify the learning styles and weaker ways of learning of their students, and to search for culturally appropriate ways of adapting to these learning styles. (In this case, culturally appropriate means appropriate to the traditional cultures and to the present day cultures of the communities.) The results have been very favourable. These results are still being analyzed, however initial results are very positive.

Applications in Culturally Diverse Classrooms

The model has been used in a less structured way in other culturally diverse classrooms in Canada, US, Australia, and New Zealand. The informal results suggest again that the approach and the materials have been effective particularly for students with special needs, because it depends on the teacher's judgment and experience with the child rather than on potentially inappropriate and expensive formal assessments

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Meeting Special needs in an Umlazi Primary School, Kwazulu-Natal.

Sithabile Ntombela, M.Ed.

Introduction

A survey conducted by Donald (1992) concluded that there are nearly three million black children with special education needs in South Africa. He maintains that the development of special needs in education can be influenced by organic and/or environmental factors. For example, poverty, poor health and health facilities, poor living standards, illiteracy, or geographical/social isolation can lead to the development of special needs (Brown, 1976; Donald, op.cit.). If nearly 40% of black school age children have special needs, one can assume that some of them attend school in Umlazi primary schools.

Conditions in the KZN-DEC Black Schools

Green (1991) believes that special education needs are widespread in black primary schools where all children have been, for many years, unintentionally integrated because of resource shortages. She maintains that many children with mild/moderate learning difficulties of short or long term duration, are often assigned to large classes (70-100 pupils) where it is common practice to retain them three or more times.

An earlier study conducted by Human Sciences Research Council confirms the teachers in black schools have problems identifying and helping pupils experiencing learning difficulties because of high teacher-pupil ratios, shortage of support staff as well as the fact that initial training does not prepare them for this task (HSRC, 1987).

If nearly 55 percent of black teachers in KwaZulu-Natal have standard ten and a three-year teaching qualification, it is evident that a large number is under qualified or unqualified (Louw and Bagwandeen, 1992). How, then, do they address pupil's needs?

Teaching for Diversity at Osizweni Primary School

There are 37 female teachers (principal included) and 1,140 pupils. There is no deputy nor a head of department. Six teachers have a two-year qualification and four have a three-year qualification and a degree. Senior primary teachers specialize whereas, in the juniors, the class teacher teaches everything. The smallest class has 48 pupils and the biggest 60.

Dessent (1987) stress that no individual teacher can begin to address pupils' special needs alone. There is always a need for staff to communicate and co-operate in attempts to meet special needs of pupils. Osizweni staff acknowledges the need to work as a team for the benefit of pupils. However, they feel inadequately equipped to help those pupils who struggle to keep up with their classmates for one reason or another. Secondly, they think that conditions at their school are not conducive to giving individual attention because classes are large and the time table is rigidly structured with no free periods.

The most commonly used methods of instruction at primary schools are copying from the board/book, memorization, and rote recitation. The medium of instruction is English in the senior phase (from grade 4). By this time, pupils are expected to know both English and Afrikaans in addition to their mother tongue, which, Baines and Mwamwenda (1994) believe is too much for young children. This may add to their difficulties in internalizing concepts hence the development of special needs (ibid).

They do discuss pupils experiencing difficulties and sometimes share strategies on an informal basis because they do not have school based staff development programmes. Since there are no special schools to refer these pupils to, they are usually retained several times before being promoted to the next class whilst some just drop out.

There is a general feeling of helplessness caused by:

i) failure of initial training to prepare them to teach all children effectively.

ii) failure of the department (old and new) to audit needs before designing inset courses. As a result, they view inset as a waste of time and money.

iii) lack of parental involvement in education. In some cases they understand that parents are illiterate but others just refuse to co-operate because "it is the teacher's job to teach, they are paid to do it." In cases that parents are co-operative, positive results are achieved but such cases are rare.

For their schools to be fully prepared for diversity, they felt that class size, period structure, support service, inset as well as parental involvement would need more attention.

Conclusion

When the new government came into power in 1994, black parents expected drastic changes in the education system but the reality is that schools that had no resources before are still without. Six weeks into the academic year Umlazi schools had not yet received stationery. Primary schools in this township still do not have posts of deputies, heads of departments nor that of administrative assistants in spite of the fact that the department failed to utilize R6,7 million in the 1996/7 financial year (Arde,1997).

It is clear that teachers at Osizweni Primary School are aware of diversity but feel helpless because there is no support either in the form of sensitizing teachers to diversity, increasing their confidence to teach all pupils or flexibility of the curriculum.

The new curriculum "Curriculum 2005" expected to transform how South African children learn may be a possible breakthrough to this vicious circle of poor quality teaching and high drop-out and failure rates. However, we need to transform the whole education system, not choose some aspects of it if we are preparing schools to teach all children. Supposing Curriculum 2005 has potential, is our present school system (teachers in particular) prepared to see it through it? Just wondering.

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Comorbidity Of Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder In Adults With Mental Retardation

Gholam Kibria, Ph.D. & Lewis Miller, M.A.

Abstract

This study investigated the comorbidity of ADHD in adults with MR. A sample of 57 MR adults, residing at an institutional setting, were screened for ADHD characteristics. The ADHD diagnostic characteristics listed in the DSM-III-R and the DSM-IV were used as the screening criteria. Subjects who met at least two of the three ADHD categories at $p < .05$ level were identified as having ADHD. The hypothesis that ADHD exists in the population of adults with MR was accepted. Recommendations for further research and implications for remedial education for adults with MR are discussed.

Although a great deal of controversy currently exists in the literature regarding the exact nature of Attention Deficit Hyperactive Disorder (ADHD), there has been, and continues to be, more emphasis on ADHD research (Goodman & Poillion, 1992). While a number of studies have linked ADHD with other conditions, the comorbidity of ADHD with other conditions has not yet been established (Caron & Rutter, 1991). In particular, there appears to be a paucity of research regarding ADHD in adults with Mental Retardation (MR). Most of the ADHD research has focused on children and adolescents; there is little research on ADHD in adults (Barkley, 1990; Wender, 1990). The few studies that examined ADHD in adults have largely been uncontrolled and have methodological inadequacies (Braswell & Boomquist, 1991).

There are indications in the literature that some individuals with MR exhibit behaviors that may be characteristic of other mental disorders, including ADHD (Handen, Breaux, Gosling, Ploof, & Feldman, 1990). In most cases, persons with MR might not be assessed in addition to the MR diagnosis for other possible etiologies of their behaviors (Caron & Rutter, 1991). The purpose of this study was to investigate the comorbidity of ADHD characteristics, as defined by DSM-III-R and DSM-IV, in the population of adults with MR.

Method

Procedure

Three ADHD categories were recognized in this study. The first ADHD category was identified under the DSM-III-R criteria. The second and third ADHD categories were identified under the DSM-IV criteria. Specifically, the DSM-IV identifies ADHD Predominantly Inattentive Type (PIT), and ADHD Hyperactive-Impulsive Type (HIT) as two separate categories. The ADHD diagnostic characteristics listed in the DSM-III-R and the DSM-IV were used to develop a 20 item survey questionnaire. The survey questionnaire was completed by Stockley Center staff, an Intermediate Care Facility for the Mentally Retarded at Georgetown, Delaware, in order to gather data on the subjects. Subjects were identified as ADHD if they met the diagnostic cutoff score at the $p < .05$ level or lower for at least two of the three ADHD categories used in this study.

Data Source

For each subject in the study (n=57), four staff members were asked to complete a separate survey questionnaire. At least one of the surveying staff was a supervisor. At least two of the surveying staff were direct care workers. Staff members from both the day shift (6:00 am - 2:00 pm) and the evening shift (2:00 pm - 10:00 pm) were represented in each subject's surveys. All of the surveying staff had worked with the subjects in question for at least six months. A subject was recorded as exhibiting an ADHD diagnostic characteristic if at least three of the four survey questionnaires had the corresponding questionnaire item marked "yes". The number of diagnostic characteristics exhibited by the subject was then examined to determine if the subjects met the diagnostic cutoff score for ADHD under the DSM-III-R and/or the DSM-IV.

Results

Four of the 57 subjects met the diagnostic cutoff score for at least two of the three ADHD categories at $p < .05$ level or lower. It may be noted that regardless of the criteria manipulation performed in this study, at least two subjects continued to meet the criteria for ADHD identification. The results of this study do support the suggestion of Barkley (1990) that subjects first be required to exhibit the hyperactive-impulse elements, rather than the inattentive elements, of ADHD before a diagnosis is made. Particularly, in this sample, the inattentive elements of ADHD were very common, this may be true of other persons who are severely or profoundly retarded.

Discussion

The results of this study do not appear to support the findings of Tomprowski & Allison (1988) who state that by late adolescence, the capacity to sustain attention does not differ between retarded and nonretarded persons. The questionnaire item in this study, *difficulty sustaining attention*, was the most commonly exhibited diagnostic characteristic, being exhibited by about 61% of the subjects. The results of this study indicated the exhibition of behavior characteristics of ADHD by adult MR subjects. These ADHD behaviors may not have been previously identified in the subjects and, as such, appropriate treatment may not have been rendered to the subjects of this study. Therefore, the findings may have implications for service providers who are legally responsible for providing appropriate treatment to persons with MR.

Conclusion

Based on the data that four subjects meeting the diagnostic cutoff score for at least two of the three ADHD categories at the $p < .05$ level, the hypothesis that ADHD exists in the population of adults with MR was accepted. It is recommended that further research may be undertaken as to determine whether or not persons with MR/ADHD who are not currently responding to behavioral interventions alone might benefit from the addition of pharmacological interventions currently used to treat persons with ADHD.

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A Comparison of Canadian and Chinese Teachers' Perceptions and Attitudes Toward Social Integration

Lily Dyson, Ph.D. & Nin-sheng Zhang

Inclusion of children with disabilities in the mainstream is the goal being pursued by current special education in North America (Andrews & Lupart, 1993). The rationale is sound from the social and cultural background of North America. However, inclusion may be viewed and practiced differently by other nations with cultural and educational systems that are different from those of North-America. Cross-cultural information on inclusion, however, is lacking. Social integration as a major goal of inclusion would be pertinent to examine for cross-cultural differences and similarities. Information would not only increase understanding in special education but help international communication.

In social, political, and cultural domains, China differs from Canada. For example, the Chinese society emphasizes collectivism and group well-being (Burton, 1986; Parker, 1977), in contrast to the North-American valuing of individualism (Spence, 1985). The Chinese school systems are vastly different from the Canadian in the class size, curriculum emphasis, and teaching methods (Hawkins & Stites, 1991; Hudson-Ross & Dong, 1990). The Chinese elementary school teaching emphasizes moral education and "all-around development" (Hawkins & Stites, 1991) and unselfishness (Burton, 1986). Assisting slower and younger children is expected of even kindergarten children in China (Burton, 1986). These educational and social characteristics would have an impact on the society's perception of social integration of children with disabilities. The Chinese perspectives would differ from those of the Western perspectives such as in Canada. Because teachers work directly with students, they have the first-hand experience with education and expectations of students with disabilities. Teachers' expectations are regarded as a potent socialization force for children (Lee, 1975). Teachers' perspectives on social integration would be crucial for programs promoting integration of children with disabilities.

This study compares the perceptions and practices of social integration of elementary school children as held and experienced by teachers from Canada and the People's Republic of China. The participants were 55 Canadian teachers and 66 Chinese teachers who were interviewed with a pre-determined, open-ended questionnaire to determine their perceptions and experiences with the notion of social integration. Specific areas of investigation included: meaning of social integration, teachers' assessment of the state of social integration in their classes, the methods the teachers used to promote integration of children with disabilities, and barriers to social integration. The interviews were conducted in the language of the participants. They were tape-recorded, transcribed, with the Chinese interviews being translated into English.

The results show greater similarities than differences between the two cultural groups of teachers. For example, cross-cultural similarities appeared in a wide range of areas. In the concept of social integration, both groups of teachers regarded it to involve physical integration in school, sharing of learning and studying activities, equal treatment of children with disabilities, and the nondisabled peers' moral responsibility in helping social integration. Social integration was seen to occur more on the school ground but not outside schools. Academic subject areas presented difficulty for social integration to take place. Barriers affecting social integration were perceived to exist in both children with and without disabilities, the major factors being the negative attitudes towards children with disabilities among the nondisabled children and the lack of abilities of children with disabilities in general functioning. Canadian and Chinese elementary school teachers were especially similar in their approaches to promote social integration of children with disability. The methods they used included providing personal encouragement and physical assistance, creating opportunities for social integration through finding friends for the children with disabilities, or arranging group learning activities. Major differences appeared in that social integration was defined to include the broader societal responsibility and domains by the Chinese but not by the Canadian teachers. There was also a generally more positive attitudes toward integration by the Chinese teachers. As an illustration, Appendix 1 presents a comparison of the definitions of social integration between the Canadian and Chinese teachers.

The results suggests that there may be cross-cultural commonalty in the educators' expectations for social integration, barriers for such an activity, and methods for promoting social integration. However, unique cultural and social characteristics may also affect how social integration is defined. Future research must continue to examine cultural impact on the integration of children and students with disabilities with the ultimate goal of developing programs for enhancing the inclusion of these children.

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Figure 1
Canadian and Chinese Teachers' Definitions and Attitudes toward Social Integration of Children with Special Needs

Canadian

Theme	n	%
1. Friendship and acceptance for all children	25	40
2. Children with disabilities being part of the classroom activities	9	14
3. Children with disabilities receive equal treatment (e.g., respect, work together with peers, access to instructions and materials with modifications)	10	16
4. Increasing social competence and independence in the children with disabilities (e.g., confidence, communication, behavior)	6	10
5. Special needs being met but not at expense of others	5	8
6. Integration adds more burden to teaching	3	5
7. Nondisabled children being exposed to children with special needs	2	3
8. Others (integration cannot happen due to limitations of children with disabilities; teachers need experience to work children with disabilities)	2	3
Total response	63[a]	99

Chinese

Theme	n	%
1. Society should provide for people with disabilities (e.g., acceptance, jobs, living conditions)	32	42
2. Being together with nondisabled children (study, play, live)	18	24
3. Good or necessary or beneficial to children with disabilities	16	21
4. Inclusion in the regular class	4	5
5. Children with disabilities have abilities and self-confidence	4	5
6. Others (society should not exclude children with disabilities; teachers need to educate nondisabled children to have positive	2	3

attitudes toward others with disabilities)		
Total response	76[a]	100

[a] The number presents the total number of responses provided by the participants. Some participants may give more than one response.

An Educational Program for Raising Awareness of Disabilities and for Promoting Social Integration of Children with Disabilities in Elementary Schools

Lily Dyson, Ph.D.

Inclusion of children with disabilities is a major contemporary concern and interest in education specifically and in the society in general. While researchers have identified the needs to promote inclusion of children with disabilities (Andrew & Lupart, 1993; Steinback & Steinback, 1990) few programs are available to systematically assist the effort. Social integration, an aspect of inclusion, is especially being neglected. Yet, acceptance by peers and integration with peers would be not only important for the well-being of children with disabilities but also critical for their learning. Moreover, research has shown that, despite mainstreaming, children with disabilities experience social isolation (La Greca & Stone, 1990; Stone & La Greca, 1990; Wisely & Morgan, 1981). A factor contributing to this phenomenon is negative attitudes of the peers (Dyson, 1994) which, however, have been shown to improve with increased understanding of the experience of disabilities (Bok & Siperstein, 1987). Educating children about disabilities thus would be essential for improving attitudes toward disabilities and hence greater social integration of children with disabilities. There is, however, a lack of a systematic program for this purpose.

Drawn from literature and research (Donaldson, 1981; Fiedler & Simpson, 1987; Jones, Sowell, Jones, & Butler, 1981), an educational program which would improve understandings of disabilities and hence social integration of children with disabilities would consist of components of learning about disability, vicarious experiences of the disabilities, discussions of disabilities, and learning about methods of interacting with individuals with disabilities. It is based on these components that a Canadian educational program has been developed and delivered to elementary school children for the purpose of increasing understanding of disabilities and hence social integration of children with disabilities. This study presents the program and reactions from the teachers and students who took part in the program.

Program

The program consists of a series of workshop programs to teach children about disabilities through simulation exercises of disabilities and discussion of methods of interacting with children with disabilities. The workshop programs are facilitated by university students and children are provided the opportunity to reflect on their learning following the workshops. A typical program consists of a series of four workshops: one on friend-making for all children with or without disabilities and three on types of disabilities that are relevant to the children's class. As an example, the following briefly describes four programs to teach about various types of disabilities: physical handicaps, learning disabilities, visual impairment, and friendship.

Physical Handicaps

In this program, children experience 3 activities: (1) Cooperative Play to experience the limitation of having a physical or sensory disabilities and to appreciate how people with these disabilities can also cooperate to achieve a common goal, (2) Adaptive Equipment allows children to learn about adaptive equipment, and (3) Barriers leads children to identify physical barriers posed for children with physical disabilities.

Learning Disability

In this program, children learn about 3 difficulties associated with learning disability: (1) Perceptual difficulty, (2) reading difficulty, and (3) motor coordination problems.

Visual Impairment

Visual impairment is learned through simulation of blindness, experiencing different degrees of visual impairment, and reading Braille.

Friend-making

This program integrates the concept of friendship for all children, with or without disabilities and friendship especially for peers with disabilities. Three activities are included: (1) experiencing friendship through social interaction with peers in the same class, (2) experiencing the physical sense of friendship, and (3) brainstorming ways of including everyone, especially those with disabilities in daily life.

Reactions of Teachers and Children

The reactions to the Friend-making program by teachers and children were drawn from the teachers' and students' reflections following the completion of the series of workshop programs. Interviews with pre-determined questions were carried out with three teachers after the completion of the workshops by their classes. The interview was to gain an understanding of the program in terms of its relationship to the regular curriculum and the effect on the children. All three teachers acknowledged that the program not only complemented the regular program, especially in Friendship and Family Life, but also enhanced the children's learning in these areas. All teachers also found general effects on the nondisabled children in that the program raised greater awareness and generated greater empathy for others with disabilities. The teachers also sensed a change of attitudes among the nondisabled children toward others with disabilities. Although one teacher was less certain about the effect on the children with special needs in his class, another teacher was positive that there was more inclusion of children with special needs and that these children were "feeling a lot more comfortable to have things brought out in the open." Another teacher commented that the program sensitized children to the differing abilities and disabilities in people.

Reflections from children that were shared in the group discussion indicated a surprised discovery of the difficulty experienced due to a disability such as visual impairment, physical handicaps, learning disabilities, or mental handicaps. Children also showed increased empathy with experiences of those with disabilities. Kind ways of interacting with peers with disabilities were further generated by children in that helping and equal treatment dominate their proposed methods of interacting with those with disabilities.

Although based on a small number of teachers, the positive effects of the program as indicated by the teachers and the children suggest that a program to raise awareness of disabilities as presently presented has the potential to improve the understanding of disabilities and empathy among nondisabled children toward those with disabilities. There may also be beneficial effects on the social inclusion of children with special needs. To increase social integration of children with disabilities, teachers may deliver the program as presently presented while researchers need to develop and evaluate other programs for the social integration of children with disabilities. Research also needs to continue to examine other factors besides understanding of disabilities and attitudes toward people with disabilities that may contribute to the social acceptance of people with disabilities in society.

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Attitude Toward Critical Thinking Among Students Enrolled in Teacher Education Programs: Implication for BD and LD Curriculum

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Relationship of Critical Thinking and Children with Learning and Behavior Disorders

Are there any similarities between the disposition to think critically and some of the intentions of students with learning or behavior disorders? That is, are LD or BD students who engage in questioning and acting-out behavior toward authority figures attempting a criticism of norms and information. If this is a motivation of the LD or BD student, no matter how dimly perceived and emotionally distorted, then would not the impartation of the rules and skills of critical thinking provide a measure of socially acceptable empowerment for the student with academic and behavior problems? The practical question then arises as to whether or not the teachers these pupils encounter are predisposed to value critical thinking.

While the line between the defiant and disruptive activities of the LD and BD students and students who engage in critical thinking seems grossly distinct, the differences may be less categorical than they appear. If we take Socrates as the paradigm case of a critical thinker, who went about asking challenging questions of government, religion, and the general mores, we may, depending upon our ideological orientations, regard Socrates as a gifted and enlightening critic of our time, or we may view him as a threat to the social order, as disruptive, disrespectful, and subversive. The Athenian authorities in fact believed Socrates' behavior so disordered that they recommend the death sentence.

Of course it cannot be suggested that every LD or BD student is a misunderstood "closet philosopher" who is only in search of truth. The point to be illustrated here is that questions, especially the challenging ones which are at the core of any critical analysis, may be considered as defiant, and subversive in certain social climates. Critical thinking, by its very nature, examines information and challenges epistemological status quos. When this occurs in a hierarchically structured, authoritarian classroom, questioning in general, and critical questioning in particular, may be viewed as a distraction at best, and a subversion of the teacher's authority at worst. One may suspect that in most classrooms, questions from "gifted and talented" students are tolerated if not encouraged, but it is doubtful questions from BD and LD students receive the same nurturing and toleration. The label "gifted and talented" may authorize the asking of critical questions, whereas the label "BD" for example, may a priori discount the use of questions as anything but symptomatic of the labeled disorder.

If the student with behavior or learning disorders often engages in verbally aggressive behaviors or verbal disruptions, one wonders if the student is at some level, attempting to engage in critical thinking, but lacks the skills (knowledge of the rules of the critical thinking "game"), and is further handicapped by communication deficits related to an inappropriate emotional influence. Johnston, Simon, & Zemitizsch (1983) have suggested that students with BD are deficient in social intercourse and problem resolution because they believe there is only one right way to resolve a problem. Critical thinking operates under the paradigm that there is not a single "right" way of solving a problem, but rather that problems are managed through the rules of reason in an open dialog.

Croake (1986) has indicated that authority is an issue with conduct disordered children and adolescents, and that shifting authority from the therapist to the conduct-disordered individuals themselves had a positive impact on their behavior. Critical thinking, by its very nature decentralizes authority. The critical thinking dialog gives authority over to reason. Critical thinking empowers its users in that the rules are the same for everyone, no one can dominate or intimidate by any emotional or personal force; there is no appeal to authority. Critical thinking skills may thus empower students with BD and LD since some of the problem areas for these students, namely authority, strong emotion, and the belief that there is "only one right way" are, at least in principle, effectively neutralized.

These considerations then, lead to the question of this study: does the teacher of the student with learning and behavior disorders value critical thinking and the attributes of the critical thinker? In an attempt to address that question, students enrolled in an institution of higher education were given the Attitude Toward Critical Thinking Scale (CTS), an instrument designed to measure epistemological orientations which in varying degrees either favors the unfettered use of critical thinking, or favors its delimitation (Eigenberger, 1996).

Methods

Subjects in this study were 235 students enrolled in graduate and undergraduate courses in the College of Education and in the College of Liberal Arts & Sciences (A&S) at a major western land grant university. One hundred and fifteen subjects were from the college of Education (24 males, 91 females) and 120 subjects were from A&S (84 males, 72 females). Mean age of the total sample was 25.4 years.

Results

T-tests were used to determine differences between Arts & Sciences and Education majors, and an ANOVA was used to determine differences within majors in Education. Attitude toward critical thinking was compared between the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences and the

College of Education. A t-test revealed Arts & Sciences majors to have a significantly higher mean score than the college of Education (t=4.85, df 232 p<.001). Within the College of Education, three majors were compared: elementary, secondary, and special education. A one-way ANOVA showed secondary education majors with significantly higher scores than the other education majors [F(2,110)=2.99, p=.05].

Discussion

The results of this study indicate that significant differences exist in attitude toward critical thinking between the colleges of Arts & Sciences and Education. There is a tendency for A&S students to have a significantly more favorable attitude toward critical thinking than Education students.

The critical question to be posed regarding the difference in attitude toward critical thinking between Education and A&S majors is this: Is the observed score difference a matter of concern? If Education majors value critical thinking less than Arts & Sciences students, what impact does or will that have in the way children are taught in the classrooms of the near future? What sort of impact will this apparent lesser regard for critical thinking have for special students, both the gifted and those with learning and behavior problems?

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A Transdisciplinary Assessment Model for Children and Youth with Attention-Deficit/ Hyperactivity Disorder

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Abstract

This paper provides student data from the Multidisciplinary Diagnostic Training Program (MDTP) located at the University of Florida which uses a team approach to diagnose and intervene with children and youth at risk for school failure for myriad reasons. Specifically, ADHD student data will be provided along with consumer satisfaction data from process participants.

Practitioners are faced with a mounting number of issues in their quest to educate today's children and youth. One issue receiving a great deal of attention is that of adequately diagnosing and treating children and youth affected with Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD). All too often diagnosis, and medical intervention when indicated, is made by a physician who has little if any contact with school personnel resulting in service fragmentation. This fragmentation is of concern to educational practitioners and physicians alike. Therefore, a need for collaboration among professionals is critical if we are to enter into the 21st century with a viable assessment and service delivery model for students with ADHD (Schwiebert, Sealander, & Tollerud, 1995).

The purpose of this paper is to introduce the MDTP and discuss data obtained from a 10 year follow-up study. ADHD student data relative to referral and placement considerations and gender related data will be provided. Consumer satisfaction data is also discussed.

The MDTP Model

The Multidisciplinary Diagnostic and Training Program (MDTP) is located at the University of Florida and represents a cooperative venture between the colleges of Medicine, Education, and Health Related Professions. ...Team members include professionals from the fields of speech and language, psychology, education, and medicine. Collaborative evaluations, consultation, and intervention programs are offered by these disciplines. Critical to the success of the MDTP is the use of a case conference format for data sharing among the involved the professionals. An elaboration of the MDTP process can be found in Sealander and Hendrickson (1995).

Overall Description of MDTP Students

A 10 year follow-up study of 529 students referred to and served by the MDTP between 1981 and 1990 was conducted. The majority of students ranged in age from 6 to 12 years and were comprised of Caucasian, African American, Hispanic, Asian, and Native Americans (Table 1). The majority of referred students were male (79%) and most were referred for academic reasons, however, medical and behavior concerns were also reasons for referral (Table 1).

Data regarding educational placements of students show most educational categories represented with slightly more than half of the referrals coming from Special Education placements (Table 1). Broad areas of concern relevant to the student's academic readiness and performance included: reading problems, classroom readiness, mathematics, speech and language, spelling, and adaptive/behavior problems. Regarding medical complications or problems, 46.9% of the population were the result of a complicated or problem pregnancy, 32% were delayed in some aspect of development, diverse medical concerns were noted for 72% and neurological concerns for 71% of the population. Seizures were noted in 10% of the general MDTP referred students, a rate 10 times that of the normal population.

The ADHD Sub-sample

Attention Deficit Hyperactive Disorder was diagnosed in 19% of the referred population. As with the general MDTP population, the sub-sample of children meeting criteria for an ADHD diagnosis were comprised mostly of males (83.7%) with the racial distribution of the ADHD students very similar to the entire sample. Children in the ADHD group were slightly more likely to come from a traditional family than the sample as a whole (79.6% vs. 74%). A smaller percentage of ADHD students had academic concerns only as their reason for referral compared to the entire sample. A larger percentage of ADHD students had behavior as an area of concern. In general, boys and girls were represented in all categories in similar percentages, however, there was not a single girl referred for a behavior problem as the only referral concern while 13.4% of the boys were referred only for behavioral reasons. Girls referred with a behavioral concern had comorbid academic concerns in all cases.

The ADHD sub-sample had a higher percentage of students diagnosed with a behavior disorder than the sample as a whole and boys were exclusively given a BD label. Conversely, ADHD girls were more likely to be diagnosed LD (25%) than ADHD boys (18.3%). ADHD students were slightly more likely to be served in a special education setting than the general sample.

Consumer Satisfaction

Two hundred sixty four case conference participants comprised of teachers and school personnel were surveyed to determine the degree of consumer satisfaction with the MDTP case conference format. The majority reported the recommendations to be realistic, valuable, the format collaborative in nature (97%), and within their belief systems (92%)–that is they believe in the efficacy and feasibility of the recommendations. Ideas and suggestions were felt valued by 93% and 84% felt they made contributions to the team and were valued as a team member. Overall content and information presented at the case conference was felt to be appropriate (93%). Moreover, 84% of participants reported the case conference was a transdisciplinary exchange, a format for active problem solving, a process for making useful student related decisions, and a professional growth experience.

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Table 1

Percentages for the Entire Sample and the ADHD Sample on Relevant Variables

Variable	**Entire Sample**	**ADHD Sample**
Gender		
Male	79.2	83.7
Female	20.8	16.3
Race		
White	79.8	81.6
Black	18.5	17.3
Other	1.7	1.0
Marital Status		
2 Parents	74.0	79.6
Sing. Par.	26.0	20.4
Referral Reason		
Academic Only	44.2	27.6
Behavior Only	8.0	11.2
Ac & Beh	41.4	52.0
Beh & Medical	0.2	1.0
Ac, Beh, & Med	3.4	4.1
Behavior Included	53.0	68.3
Educational Diagnosis		
Behavior Disordered	11.2	18.4
Learning Disabled	27.9	19.4
EMH	5.5	11.2
Other	5.3	7.1
None	50.1	43.9
Educational Placement		
Reg. Education	32.1	32.7
Spec. Education	50.3	56.1
Chapter 1	17.7	11.2

Special Education Teacher Needs in Working with Students With Emotional/Behavior Disorders

Janice A. Chavez, Ph.D. & Landa J. Iverson, Ph.D.

Due to the multiple needs of students with emotional and behavior disorders (EBD), it is critical that teachers instructing these student be adequately prepared. Personnel preparation programs in EBD should prepare teachers in best practices, procedures, and curriculum (Wheland & Simpson, 1996). Providing effective teacher training for prospective teachers of students with EBD should include a relationship between the theoretical basis for professional performance and the application of those theoretical constructs. Wrobel (1993) recommends addressing the issues of teacher burnout and environmental determinates in teacher preparation programs. Fink and Janssen (1993) suggest competencies that include assessment, consultation, social skills development, behavior management, instructional programming and curriculum, personal professional development, administration, and technology.

The need to effectively prepare teachers who are competent in working with the most challenging students is critical. Teacher training institutions must respond to this need in order to prepare teachers with a specific level of expertise in instructing and managing difficult students. By identifying target competencies, teacher preparation programs will assure that the knowledge and skills necessary to teach students with EBD are achieved.

This study was conducted to determine the knowledge and skill levels of special education teachers serving students with EBD across 13 competency areas. These areas included the characteristics of learners, assessment and diagnosis of EBD, instructional content and practice, managing the learning environment, managing student behavior, transitions, monitoring and evaluation, cultural and linguistic diversity, communication and collaboration, families, community resources, legal and administrative structure, and professional and ethical practice.

Participants included 58 graduate students enrolled in special education courses at a central California university and concurrently employed as special education teachers in classrooms serving students with disabilities, including students with EBD. The sample was comprised of 44 females and 14 males with a mean age of 35.3 years. Self reports of ethnicity included: 69.1% Caucasian, 23.2% Hispanic, 5.4% African American, and 1.8% Asian American. The majority of the participants held a specific academic degree (59.7%) or a Liberal Arts bachelor's degree (38.6%). Elementary education teaching credentials were held by 6.2% of the participants as compared to 20.7% in secondary education, 6.9% in bilingual education, and 15.5% in other certificates and authorizations. Forty-five percent of the participants were employed in urban and 42.6% were employed in rural school districts. Approximately 58% of the special education teachers were employed under "emergency credentials or permits" and 17.2% possessed a special education credential. The average teaching experience was 1.7 years and the average number of special education course units completed was 21.4 units.

Participants were requested to provide demographic information which included sex, ethnicity, age, credentials/degrees held, completed special education courses, and information regarding their school districts. In addition, participants were requested to respond The EBD Teacher Competencies Assessment (Institute for Adolescents with Behavior Disorders, 1994) by identifying their knowledge and skill levels using a 5-point likert scale by indicating: 1 = none or little, 2 = somewhat, 3 = moderate, 4 = strong, or 5 = mastery across the 13 competencies.

Mean scores for each competency area were calculated and compared across the 13 competency areas in knowledge and skill levels and for overall proficiency. Teachers rated their knowledge in managing the learning environment (M=3.57), instructional content and practice (M=3.25), and cultural and linguistic diversity (M=3.23) the highest relative to other competencies. The lowest scores in knowledge proficiency included community resources (M=2.55), professional and ethical practice (M=2.58), and transitions (M=2.59). Their skill proficiency was rated highest in cultural and linguistic diversity (M=3.62), managing the learning environment (M=3.52), and instructional content and practice (M=3.45). The lowest scores in skills levels were in community resources (M=2.54), monitoring and evaluation (M=2.65), and characteristics of learners (M=2.65). Teachers reported that they were most proficient in both knowledge and skills in instructional content and practice and least proficient in knowledge and skill level in regard to community resources.

T-tests for independent samples and dependent samples were computed. Teachers rated their overall knowledge and skill proficiency in the moderate level. No significant differences were found between knowledge and skill levels and ethnicity, age, school district size, special education course units, and teaching experience. Significant differences were found between knowledge and skills proficiency in characteristics of learners, assessment and diagnosis, instructional content and practice, managing student behavior, cultural and linguistic diversity, professional and ethical practice, and overall proficiency. Knowledge was significantly higher than skills in characteristics of learners and monitoring and evaluation; whereas, skills were higher than knowledge in the remaining areas.

Findings indicated that special education teachers expressed that they had a moderate grasp of knowledge and skill competence in teaching the student with EBD. Teachers were knowledgeable and skilled in instructional content in practice and controlling the learning environment–areas that are oftentimes emphasized in teacher preparation programs, however, they had not yet reached the mastery level. Teachers also felt competent in dealing with cultural and linguistic issues in their classrooms. Again this competency is addressed through university coursework or the background and experiences of the teachers who have lived in California for a number of years. On the other hand, teachers reported that they did not feel proficient in identifying and unitizing community resources–an area that is critical to serving EBD students who have multiple needs. Although teachers appeared to have adequate knowledge of the characteristics of EBD learners and monitoring and evaluation of these students, they were unable to apply this knowledge in the classroom. Interestingly, the same teachers reported that their skill proficiency was significantly higher than their knowledge proficiency in the areas of assessment and diagnosis, instructional content and practice, managing student behaviors, cultural and linguistic diversity, professional and ethical practice, and overall proficiency in teaching students with EBD. In effect, these teachers knew how to apply the skill, however they did not fully understand the theory behind why they chose this particular method (see Table 1).

The teachers in the sample appeared to have acquired their skills through on-the-job training. They often use a trial-and-error approach when working with EBD students rather than selecting research based effective practices. Teachers who are employed prior to completing their specialization training often use this approach in working with students. Due to the severe shortage of special education teachers in California, special education teachers are employed with a limited background in special education and minimal teaching experience. Teachers in this study were employed while concurrently taking coursework toward their special education teaching credential. With this reality, it becomes even more critical for teacher preparation institutions to bridge the coursework and field experience gap for teachers dealing with our most challenging students and their families.

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TABLE 1

T-values Across Competency Area

Competency Area	Level	Mean	SD	t-value
Characteristics of Learners	Knowledge	2.80	.674	
	Skills	2.65	.802	2.02*
Assessment and Diagnosis	Knowledge	2.65	.900	
	Skills	3.19	.821	-6.18*
Instructional Content and Practice	Knowledge	3.25	.696	
	Skills	3.45	.643	-3.75*
Managing Learning Environment	Knowledge	3.57	.726	
	Skills	3.52	.614	.79
Managing Student Behavior	Knowledge	3.01	.739	
	Skills	3.25	.712	-4.25*
Transitions	Knowledge	2.59	.976	
	Skills	2.72	.896	-.83
Monitoring and Evaluation	Knowledge	3.10	.882	
	Evaluation	2.65	.946	4.79*
Cultural and Language Diversity	Knowledge	3.23	1.027	
	Skills	3.62	.769	-4.18*
Communication and Collaboration	Knowledge	3.17	.845	
	Skills	3.24	.841	-.79
Families	Knowledge	2.90	1.032	
	Skills	3.00	.951	-.83
Community Resources	Knowledge	2.55	.973	
	Skills	2.54	.946	.11
Legal and Administrative Structure	Knowledge	2.86	1.019	
	Skills	2.73	1.040	1.50
Professional and Ethical Practice	Knowledge	2.58	1.006	
	Skills	3.44	.805	-8.14*
Overall Proficiency	Knowledge	2.94	.700	
	Skill	3.08	.645	-3.29*

* $p < .01$

Effective Classroom Teaching: Different Strokes For Different Folks

Hilton Fransman, D. Ed

Introduction

This paper hopes to outline what teaching effectiveness within classroom context means and why the term "effectiveness" has different meanings with reference to different people. When discussing "teaching effectiveness" within the classroom context it is important to distinguish between terms such as "teaching style," "teaching method," and "teaching strategy," as "style" "method," and "strategy" are very often used synonymously.

A brief discussion of the above mentioned terms will be given before looking at the concept of teaching effectiveness.

Teaching style

Galbraith and Sanders (1987:170) define teaching style as "an identifiable set of classroom behaviours associated with and carried out by the instructor or teacher. The chosen style is the operational behaviour of the teacher's educational philosophy".

As style is underpinned by the person's behaviour it could, therefore, be said that style is very much person-centred. "Style" is and should be recognizable with the person and is accompanied by a large measure of predictability. Brown, Bakhtar, and Youngman (1984:229) found in their research that the more stable the person's personality, the more predictable the style of teaching which is "a relatively stable orientation to the task of teaching."

Quite often the teaching experience (in years) would seem to be a contributing factor to teaching effectiveness. One would expect the more "experienced" teacher to be more effective, but this is not always the case. Research by Brown, Bakhtar, and Youngman has indicated that years of experience is not an active variable shaping teaching styles. While style can contribute to effectiveness, style is not necessarily influenced positively because of years of experience. People can have one year's experience 30 times over.

The other problem with style, and especially a perceived bad style, is the fact that it cannot be modified easily. Style is person-centred and every teacher has a dominant or preferred style as well as method. Norton (1986:33) contends that "style should not be confused with affectation." It should not cover up whatever lacks substance. From a visible point of view, students are sometimes impressed with a teacher's style and quite often ignore the lack of substance in the presentation.

Students also influence the style of teaching of teachers, as shown in the research done by Norton (1986:34). The size of the class; the type of subject; and the level of student motivation, maturation, and subject knowledge are factors which influence teaching style. On the one hand, within the setting of a small class size and a level of high student motivation, the style of the teacher should be one that will reinforce and enhance that motivation. On the other hand, the personality, character, and communicative style of the teacher could inhibit student learning even though contextual factors are favourable (small class sizes, high level of motivation, a solid base of pre-knowledge, etc.).

Teaching Strategy

The teacher, in an attempt to convey information meaningfully to students, will make use of appropriate teaching methods and, together with the necessary skills, transfer the learning material. However, a predetermined plan to achieve the objectives of the lesson need to be worked out.

Strategy could be defined as the path which is followed in terms of the demands of the subject matter made on the students. Depending on the demands of the subject, students will then select the most appropriate strategy to achieve the learning objectives. Dunkin (1983:67) refers to strategy as "sequences of moves" or "combination of moves." The view held by Jacobs (1986:5) is that strategy is "the approach to learning material which is determined by the type of content."

It is, therefore, not strange that if the quantity of material is excessive, students and teachers tend to adopt strategies which lead to superficial learning, neglecting to attribute any meaning to the material. Teachers must guard against this as it does not promote effective teaching and meaningful learning.

Dunkin (1983:67) expresses strategy as "statements or similarities and differences of a concept" or it could be likened to "cause, procedure, reason and rule." One way to deal with it effectively in teaching is to adhere to the customary move from the "known to the unknown," the "general to the particular," or from the "whole to the part."

Teaching method

There are many teaching methods, each with its own skill requirements, possible dangers, and particular effects on students. Different methods are utilized to serve different purposes. However, Human (1991:100) makes the important point that it is not the method which matters that much, but the manner in which the method is employed. This follows that in the modern classroom formal teaching by way of uni-directional methods (lectures) is not recommended, although such methods can be effective if utilized in the proper manner. It could also happen that with the employment of non-stereotypical methods learning is not as meaningful as expected, because students have not been sensitized into the particular method.

For any method, therefore, to lead to effective teaching and meaningful learning, it will depend on the manner in which the method is used, and whether the students understand the implications of the method.

All methods require that teachers are able to explain and to know what types of explanations are required at different times. Explanations must be clear, interesting, logical, and organized. Brown and Daines (1981:573) found that teachers have not really been taught how to explain and many of them expressed skepticism at the possibility of being taught how to explain.

The process of explaining is embedded in the typology which is threefold according to Brown and Atkins (1988:19). These are descriptive, interpretative, and reason-giving explanations which approximate the WHAT, the HOW, and the WHY. In addition to the skill of explaining, teachers could add to the effectiveness in the classroom by using the explanation to present information and to generate interest. The presentation of information and the generation of interest will result in the interaction which becomes part of all effective teaching and learning sessions.

Where explanations are not understood by students the first time, the strategy or the approach of the teacher becomes important. The teacher should ask the question to him/herself whether the strategy of , say, the "known to the unknown" or the "general to the particular" has been followed, or whether the problem cannot be approached on a "content-free" basis (Gore, 1987:35). This means that the explanation will be repeated without including content, but still following a particular strategy as outlined above. At this point the explanation will focus on HOW it is done, rather than WHAT.

Having distinguished between teaching style, strategy, and method one could now look at how these three concepts can contribute to teaching effectiveness, keeping in mind that there is no one single recipe for teaching effectiveness. This notion is supported by Lima (1981:1057) who states that "individuals doing research into the determinants of teaching effectiveness are doomed to be searching through a haystack which simply contains no needle."

Teaching Effectiveness

Teaching effectiveness is viewed differently by different teachers. Individuals possess different qualities for teaching and some have more of a specific quality than others. What works well for one does not work well for another.

Individuals have different personality styles and these manifest themselves in fairly obvious ways in teaching. On the level of analysis, there seems to be a difference of opinion of what constitutes "effective teaching" (Norton, 1986:34), in terms of organizing of content, giving form to content, pointing out relational concepts and ideas, emphasizing the necessary skills, and anticipating possible problems of students.

Furthermore, nobody can assume that teaching is possible for everyone, nor are all kinds of teaching "effective" teaching. The act of teaching is not a simplistic act, but part of a complex learning process which is interwoven with the human personality which is central to teaching. Fisher (source unknown) equates teaching to wine-making which he describes as "highly developed crafts which evolved over many centuries, both being complex and sophisticated and each practiced exquisitely by master craftspersons and quite poorly by novices."

Good teachers always attempt to consider the overall relationship between the learner, the teacher, and the learning material. Teaching is a socially challenging task which different equally effective teachers will attempt to master and fulfill. Different teaching styles will prevail due to different endowments; differing perceptions of what constitutes good teaching; and different search paths or approaches to determine which of the available styles, methods, and strategies work for them, and which lead to the most meaningful student learning.

Conclusion

Teachers must exude confidence in students, which promotes healthy relationships between teacher and student. Students also play a significant role in promoting effective teaching. They are the sounding board for teachers, and where teaching styles correspond with the learning style of students it leads to better control over the learning material.

Finally, this paper does not purport to have covered all the variables that lead to teaching effectiveness. Teachers and students should be engaged in a continuous process to determine what students think of their teachers' teaching ability so that improvements can be effected which lead to more meaningful learning.

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Regular Classroom Teachers and Special Needs Education Teacher Training

Muna Odeh

Critics of the present situation in Brazil regarding the provision of Special Education point out several focal questions. To start with, such provisions, and in parallel to the existing trend in many, if not most of the countries in the Southern Hemisphere, are remarkably scarce. In those countries, the estimated number of children with disabilities who benefit from some type of educational provision in Special Education, is notoriously low, reaching a mere 1% according to Hegarty (1993). This estimate in Brazil varies between 1.5-2% (Ferreira,1992) and 10-15% (Bueno, op cit.), the majority of which according to the same authors, study in specialized schools and institutions, that is, in segregated settings. The situation is further aggravated by the fact that special education provisions are inexistent in 80% of the country's municipalities (Ferreira, op cit.).

With this setting as the background, the present study aimed to research one aspect of the school education of children with disabilities within the regular school system, namely what has been denominated by Miles (1985) as "non-planned integration." According to Miles, the overall situation in the majority of the countries of the South, is conducive to the presence and integration of pupils with disabilities in regular education schools in view of the chronic insufficiency of both rehabilitation and special educational provisions. The present study, while not sufficiently equipped to generalize the presence of a significant number of pupils with disabilities in the Brazilian regular education schools at a national level, nevertheless argues that indeed, the available indicators strongly favour such a view. One such indicator relates to the data collected in the present study whereby participant observations as well as non-structured and informal interviews in two public schools in the city of Sao Carlos, Brazil, revealed the fact that regular classroom teachers throughout the years of their professional life do come in contact with pupils with varied types of disabilities and are led to employ adaptive strategies in order to accommodate the needs of such pupils. The term "adaptive strategies" is used here to refer to contexts where regular classroom teachers, and without knowledge, support or training in special education, are able to adapt their teaching practices as well as the overall structure of the classroom in such a way as to accommodate to the special educational needs of their pupils with disabilities. Such strategies included structural changes within the classroom involving the re-ordering of the physical structure of the classroom as well as changes at the relational level between the pupils with disabilities and their classmates. Examples of these types of changes included peer tutoring, individualized teaching, and investment in time and attention as well as the 'multiplicity of the teacher's role' in such a way as to encompass both the public and the private sphere of the pupils' lives. Although this experience suffers from limitations admitted by the proper teachers, it nevertheless falls under the 'best practices' category. By emphasizing the self-esteem and academic performance of the pupils with disabilities and thus enhancing the social integration outcome, the teachers in this study demonstrated courage, initiative, and creativity. It is concluded that those teachers possess valuable experiences and knowledge concerning the inclusion of pupils with disabilities in situations where specialist resources are dire and the school infrastructure unfavourable. In special educational needs, teacher training courses are prime contexts where this experience and knowledge can be used and adapted.

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Special Education Services For Low Achievers In Palestine: Recent Advancements

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Abstract

Children with low achievement in mainstream schools in Palestine seldom receive special attention due to the absence of trained teachers to cope with such group of pupils as well as to the large number of pupils in classes. This paper, however, will describe three special classes that have been set up to serve such group of pupils in three different private mainstream schools in the Bethlehem region as pilot classes. This model of services will be considered the basis for a new special education provision as such in almost all private mainstream schools in the Bethlehem region and possibly in other regions of Palestine. Upon the successful completion of this pilot project and with the availability of funds, an action plan to start similar classrooms will be implemented in each private school in the Bethlehem region. Government schools in the country are the responsibility of the Ministry of Education in the Palestinian Authority. However, a few initial plans related to serve pupils in government schools with full cooperation and coordination of non-government organizations such as the Bethlehem Arab Society For Rehabilitation, represented by professionals in the field, are currently carried out by the Ministry of Education.

Background

The education system in Palestine has very recently been transferred to the Palestinian Authority, after being affiliated to the Jordanian education system, while Palestine is still under the Israeli authorities. Hence, in the absence of a national government and consequently the absence of a well established national education system, the priority has been given to providing basic education for the majority of school age children (Dukmak & Kanawati, 1995).

Thus, special education provision for persons with special needs has not been given any attention and consideration until recently. There are few and unevenly distributed rehabilitation services available in Palestine. Such small scale services range from medical rehabilitation, counseling, special education, integrated education, vocational training, and job placement. No studies have actually been carried out at the national level in order to identify the number of persons with special needs in Palestine. According to Dukmak (1994), a few studies were carried out on small scales which indicated that the percentages of such persons fall between 1.5 and 3.5%. Concerning low achievement among school children, there are no figures at all that show the percentage of such group of pupils at schools. According to the writer's personal experience in this field, he argues that government schools have higher percentages of pupils with low achievement than private schools. These percentages range between 4 and 6% in private schools while the range in government schools is between 6 and 10%. This is because private schools want to keep up the good standard of their educational level and therefore, they force many low achievers to leave. Consequently, these children remain with the government schools, the only alternative.

Identification Of The Need

There are three types of mainstream schools in the country, including private, public/government, and UNRWA schools. As a matter of fact, the number of pupils experiencing learning problems that are not actually detected has been constantly increasing, especially in the last decade during the Palestinian Uprising. The constant curfews and closure of schools during the Uprising have led to the deterioration of the educational level and consequently have had negative impacts on pupils' academic performance. Kattan et al. (1991) cites evidence that pupils' acquisition of the basic academic skills in Arabic Language and Math has been greatly affected.

Schools, in general, lay a great emphasis on competition and academic achievement. Hence, most teachers are intent on the inculcation of academic knowledge and skills, while pupils are constantly under pressure to achieve academic success at school. Some teachers actually undermine children's confidence in their abilities by exposing them to failure, criticism, and negative social comparison as well as by having low expectations for their potential to perform. Others do believe that intelligence is a quality that a child possesses and are likely to categorize students as smart, average, or not smart.

In fact, there are several factors that might add much stress on the regular class teachers, especially when there are more than 30 pupils in class. These include the overall number of pupils in the regular classroom, number of pupils with learning problems therein, particularly those with behavioral problems, the confined time-table, and the restricted period of time by which the curriculum must be covered. Furthermore, those teachers lack the knowledge and experience needed to cope socially and academically with pupils with learning problems.

Hence, at our schools, the needs of such pupils, i.e., low achievers, are almost ignored by their regular classroom teachers which complicates their problem and leads to delinquency and truancy. On the other hand, such pupils are nicknamed and stigmatized as idiots, slow, and the like, although many of them actually have the potential to learn. They just need more attention from the teacher, and through remedial work, can keep up with the other pupils in the regular classroom.

There are various factors that impede the rapid and efficient development of special education provisions for pupils with learning problems in Palestine. These include the absence of a well developed national education system as well as a national curriculum, lack of a policy for or a whole school approach to special needs, financial constraints, limited resources and teaching materials, attitudes of parents as well as the attitudes of staff and administrators, and lack of advisory and support services as well as lack of well qualified professionals, particularly in the field of special education. However, it is hoped that this pilot project, explained below, together with the initiatives that are currently carried out by the Palestinian Ministry of Education will take some steps towards improving the quality of special education provision for low achievers attending regular schools and solve many of the other problems mentioned above (Dukmak & Kanawati, 1995).

Project Plan and Strategy

This pilot project is concerned with providing special education services for low achievers attending primary classes, first to sixth grade, in three private main-stream schools in the greater Bethlehem region located in the cities of Bethlehem, Beit Jala, and Beit Sahour. Such services have been provided through a special class that has been established in each school where pupils with learning problems receive specialized individual instruction in certain areas of the curriculum with which they have difficulties. There are three terms that are very important to be defined here: low achievers, learning disability, and learning problems. The term "low achievers" refers to pupils with low academic achievement due to social, psychological, bad schooling, and/or poor home environment and the like.

The term "learning disabled pupils" refers to those who have low academic achievement due to minimal brain damage in one or more specific areas of the brain. Such people might suffer from dyslexia, attention deficit hyperactivity disorders, autism spectrum disorder, right hemisphere learning disorders, and acquired memory disorders. The term of "students with learning problems" refers to students with both low achievement and learning disabilities (Pennington, 1991).

Steps of the Project

The advancements of the project have gone through the following steps:

Step One: Preparations

Upon initial agreement concerning the establishment of a special education class in each school, contacts were again made with them to discuss the practicalities of the project and contract items. After signing the contract, the special education classes were selected in terms of size and location. Suitable furniture, equipment (such as computers, printers, educational computer programs), tape recorders, and some learning materials were purchased after a thorough investigation. Hence, the three classes were established and made ready to receive the target group. Moreover, several workshops were held for both staff and parents at each of the schools involved in order to introduce the project and its goals.

All students were also informed of the project in an attempt to foster positive attitudes. It is worth mentioning here that a study which was carried out by Dukmak (1991) in 27 schools in the greater Bethlehem region, suggests that the majority of school administrators who participated in the study (89%) foster positive attitudes towards pupils with special needs and mainstream education. The schools involved in the study included government, private, and UNRWA schools located at different cities, villages, and refugee camps and which comprise 85% of all schools in greater Bethlehem.

Step Two: Training

After a lengthy study and consultation with other professionals in the field from Manchester University, the curriculum of the training program was planned. Participants were recruited for the training program by the three school directors and trainers through interviews. The training program lasted for seven months with a one month break in between. Teaching materials were well prepared from up-to-date references and translated into the Arabic language. Two main trainers taught the course with other guest teachers from the University of Bethlehem. The assessment procedures for participants involved reports, assignments, case presentations, and supervised practical training in the three schools involved. At the end of the training program, six of the participants were selected and employed at the three schools involved, two in each. In-service training was also provided for those teachers; part of it was on using educational computer programs.

Step Three: Assessment

A study was carried out involving all students in the three schools involved, grade one to six, to identify normative criteria needed for assessing children with learning problems. This process involved several meetings with primary class teachers at each school to direct them regarding the procedural aspects of the study which are:

a. Preparing testing materials.

b. Conducting tests.

c. Marking the tests.

After interpreting the results of the study, the normative criteria was set for each grade level. Next a set of assessment forms were designed and used for identifying children with learning problems at the three schools involved which included teacher interview form, pupil observation form, and other forms related to the pupil's academic behavior and the like. Curriculum based assessment tools for Arabic and Mathematics were also devised and used for assessing the identified students' academic skills in order to set the intervention plan. All test sheets were marked and an intervention program for each student was planned to be implemented.

Step Four: Intervention

This step included the implementation of individual intervention programs. The special education teachers' work has been closely supervised and students progress has been constantly reviewed. The identification process of students at-risk was considered.

Project's Monitoring System

Through the regular weekly visits to the schools involved, the progress of the work has been continuously monitored and reported to the administration of the project implementing body (Bethlehem Arab Society for Rehabilitation).

Project's Evaluation

The evaluation of the project has been always an ongoing process all the way throughout the first year and has been planned to follow the same evaluation procedure for the second and the third year too. However, there are certain issues that should be highlighted.

With respect of the primary class teachers' attitudes, they had some difficulty understanding the importance of the special education teacher's work in helping students with learning problems, and that those students' academic performance might improve. They also had some difficulty cooperating with them and accepting their existence in their classes. In addition, they complained a lot about their role in the study carried out for identifying normative assessment criteria. Such negative attitudes have been gradually diminishing.

Primary class teachers and the special education teachers, as well, had some difficulty dealing with the different assessment forms designed to identify students with learning problems. The special education teachers, in particular, had a lot of information to take in and a heavy workload to carry. However, they were able to cope and meet all work requirements as efficiently as possible. The number of students identified as having learning problems and candidates for intervention at the three schools involved is 100. There are also more than 70 students at-risk who are currently under observation. Concerning the curriculum based assessment tool, it is found to be very useful in assessing students ability in each academic skill and determining intervention level.

Finally, in spite of difficulties encountered, the project went through its implementation steps as expected.

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Teachers' Ratings of Nursery Class Children's Behaviour before, and after, the Availability of Satellite Television in St Helena, South Atlantic.

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Given that children's behaviour can be affected by their observations of social interactions (Bandura, 1986), the TV provides abundant opportunities for children to be influenced in this way. Even so, disagreements exist about the nature of this influence. Some studies allege TV-viewing encourages antisocial behaviour (e.g., Boyatzis, Matillo, & Nesbitt, 1995), some claim altruistic effects (e.g., Zielinska & Chambers; 1995) whilst others refute any connections (e.g., Gauntlett, 1997).

However, laboratory or field study methodologies are often criticized because findings generalize weakly to real-life settings. More convincing claims can emanate from naturalistic methods which offer realism and validity for assessing effects in real life. Even so, claims of TV effects are rare from naturalistic inquiries due to limited scope for data collections in the pre-TV phase. Fortunately, St Helena offers a unique opportunity to investigate TV's effects in this way by observing children's behaviour before and after, the availability of TV.

St Helena is among the world's most isolated inhabited islands. 1,300 pupils are enrolled in a three-tier educational system incorporating first schools with nursery classes, middle schools and a secondary school. In March 1995, satellite TV (CNN) was introduced to the Island. Since then reception has expanded to include two channels offering a mix of CNN, Hallmark (films), Discovery Channel, SuperSport and Cartoon Network. Viewing is possible around the clock.

This paper presents preliminary findings from a substudy in a broader longitudinal project investigating effects of satellite TV on children's school behaviour and leisure time. Given the contradictions and ambiguities in the literature, the project offers exceptional opportunities to help clarify, and therefore advance, existing knowledge and understanding of TV's influence upon young children's social behaviour.

Method

Subjects were two cohorts of same-aged boys and girls (M.age = 3.10 yrs.) attending nursery classes attached to first schools in St Helena. The 1993 cohort (N=57) comprised youngsters in classes (N=6) at the beginning of the 1993/94 academic year. The 1996 cohort (N=57) attended classes (N=5) at the beginning of the 1996/97 academic year. McGuire and Richman's (1986) Pre-School Behaviour Checklist (PBCL) was used to rate children's school behaviour. Teachers (N=6) completed the PBCL in November 1993 for the first cohort. Results from this research showed nursery class children on St Helena to be among the best behaved world-wide (Charlton, Abrahams, & Jones, 1995). PBCL scores were obtained from teachers (N=5) in November 1996 for the second cohort, some 20 months after the availability of CNN. On the same occasion nursery assistants from the two larger classes completed the PBCL independently with a random sample of their children (N=17) to establish rater reliability (.93).

The PBCL includes 22 items. Most items allow choices between three behavioural descriptions scored 'no problem' (0), 'possible problem' (1) or 'definite problem' (2). Children scoring at or above a cut-off score of 12, from a possible total score of 44, may require further assessment. In the absence of a directional hypothesis, data from the two cohorts were subjected to two-tailed t-tests.

Results

PBCL total scores for individuals in both cohorts were positively skewed. The PBCL total mean score for the 1993 cohort was 3.2 (median score = 1.0; modal score = 0); four youngsters scored 12 or more. The 1996 cohort's PBCL total mean score was lower (3.0), the median score higher (2.0) and the modal score remained the same. No pupils scored 12 or more. Compared to the 1993 cohort, the 1996 cohort were significantly less likely to fight, tease and show temper tantrums; they were also significantly more likely to be withdrawn from staff and have poor concentration.

Discussion

Some twenty months after the availability of TV, teachers' ratings showed a continuation of low rates of antisocial behaviour among young children on St Helena. Moreover, compared to their peers in the 1993 cohort, the 1996 cohort were reported to be significantly less likely to engage in the types of aggressive behaviours which TV is often accused of encouraging. These results match trends found elsewhere in the inquiry, in observations of children's free-play in first school playgrounds (Charlton, in prep) and in discussions with older students (Charlton & O'Bey, in press) . Even so, they contradict outcomes from other naturalistic studies. In Western Canada, Joy, Kimball, & Zabrak (1986) reported significant increases in children's aggression 2 years after the arrival of TV. Elsewhere, Centerwall (1989) reported that white homicide rates in the USA and Canada doubled 10- to 15-years after the availability of TV. He argued the time-lag implied that behavioural effects of exposure are exerted primarily upon children.

FIGURE 1

PRE-SCHOOL BEHAVIOUR CHECKLIST ITEMS

Mean, Standard Deviation and *t* values for 1993 and 1996 Cohorts

Item	Description	1993 Cohort		1996 Cohort		*t*	*p*
		M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
1	Activity level	0.12	0.38	0.18	0.46	0.66	0.512
2	Not liked by other (peers)	0.02	0.13	0.02	0.13	0.00	1.000
3	Wets	0.04	0.26	0.02	0.13	0.45	0.656
4	Soils	0.04	0.26	0.02	0.13	0.45	0.656
5	Poor concentration	0.35	0.58	0.61	0.74	2.09	0.039*
6	Difficult to manage	0.19	0.44	0.11	0.36	1.16	0.249
7	Demands attention	0.28	0.62	0.35	0.51	0.66	0.513
8	Speech unclear	0.30	0.50	0.23	0.53	0.72	0.470
9	Reluctant to speak to others	0.16	0.41	0.12	0.42	0.45	0.656
10	Temper tantrums	0.18	0.43	0.04	0.18	2.27	0.026*
11	Not sociable with peers	0.09	0.34	0.16	0.36	1.05	0.294
12	Whines	0.25	0.47	0.33	0.47	0.99	0.236
13	Sensitive	0.18	0.47	0.14	0.35	0.45	0.651
14	Fights	0.18	0.38	0.04	0.18	2.49	0.015*
15	Aimless wandering	0.18	0.38	0.16	0.36	0.25	0.804
16	Interferes with others	0.21	0.41	0.18	0.38	0.47	0.639
17	Miserable	0.09	0.34	0.02	0.13	1.44	0.153
18	Teasing others	0.21	0.41	0.05	0.22	2.54	0.013*
19	Withdrawn from staff	0.00	0.00	0.09	0.28	2.32	0.024*
20	Destructive	0.14	0.35	0.14	0.44	0.00	1.000
21	Fearful	0.02	0.13	0.05	0.29	0.82	0.414
22	Habits (e.g. sucking, biting)	0.02	0.13	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.322
	Total	3.19	4.20	3.04	2.89	0.26	0.796

* $p < 0.05$

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Enhancing Resiliency in Families of Preschool Children

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Resiliency is a concept that is useful to researchers and practitioners who wish to approach their inquiry and interventions in a positive or promotional manner. In a recent Canadian report, resiliency was defined as the capability of individuals, families, groups, and communities to adapt successfully in the face of risk (Mangham, Reid, McGrath, & Stewart, 1994). That is, the outcome of resiliency is successful adaptation. The resiliency capability is therefore a positive attribute and is portrayed as a dynamic process that can be enhanced. The dynamic process of the resiliency capacity is captured in the interactional balance between protective factors and risk conditions. As such, resiliency is seen to be malleable and can be enhanced through strengthening existing protective factors or through development of new protective factors.

The objectives of this paper are twofold. The relations between family adaptation, an outcome of family resiliency, and the dynamic of protective factors in families will be specified. Further, the influence of two family-centred practice approaches on family adaptation in a sample of families at-risk will be reported.

The Family Adaptation Model (Kysela, McDonald, Drummond, & Alexander, 1996) will be used to operationalize a network of concepts that are central to family adaptation and family protective factors. The model will also be used to propose the relationship between protective factors and adaptation in families. Finally, the presence of family protective factors and family adaptation in a sample of families facing risks will be presented. The same protective factors and family adaptation outcomes will also be examined after the implementation of each of the following two approaches: the Natural Teaching Strategy (NTS - McDonald, Alexander, Kysela, & Drummond, 1996), and the Cooperative Family Learning Approach (CFL - Drummond, Kysela, McDonald, Alexander, & Shank, 1996). Each approach is paired with the Family-centred Assessment and Intervention Approach (FAA - Kysela, McDonald, Alexander, Martin, Wyles, & Drummond, 1996).

Resiliency Conceptualized Through the Family Adaptation Model

The concept of resiliency is well represented in the Family Adaptation Model. In that model, adaptation is best described as the presence of general family patterns or protective factors in families. As conceived in resiliency, these protective factors represent the factors that balance risk conditions such as presence of child with special needs, poverty brought about through chronic underemployment, and many others family situations. In the Family Adaptation Model, the notion of balancing risk is operationalized through the positive mediating efforts of Appraisals, Supports, and Coping on Demands. The attributes of the general family protective factors are conceived as the specific attitudes and behaviours of Appraisal, Support, and Coping.

Approaches Designed to Enhance Resiliency

The Natural Teaching Strategies Approach (NTS) was designed to influence the family protective factor of effective parenting. It was developed by Kysela and McDonald and their colleagues. The approach is directed at showing parents how to use specific interaction strategies during naturally occurring times of the day to enhance the development of their child. It was first used with a sample of parents that had children with special needs. Clinical use by both parents and professionals have played a role in its revision over time. The most recent version of the

NTS is focused on development of the following parent skills: following the child's lead; turn-taking through imitation; expansion of activities; teaching during naturally occurring times; and a positive, communication-based approach to managing difficult behavior (McDonald et. al., 1996).

The Cooperative Family Learning Approach (CFL) was directed toward the protective factor described as improvement in coherency of response to crisis. The WE CAN cooperative family problem solving model organizes problem-solving skills into: W-What is the situation?; E Evaluate the options; C-Can anyone help?; A-Agree; and N-Notice the difference. The CFL Approaches (Drummond et. al., 1996) emphasize a positive attitude, family cooperation, the clear definition of family situations as opportunities, and the importance of agreement. In order to achieve WE CAN within the context of cooperation, a system of necessary skills was organized. These skills were called "We have the skill!" and include such skills as listening, contributing, perspective taking, giving feedback, designation of ownership, assertiveness, and conflict management. All components and sequencing of the CFL were developed together with practitioners from two community-based service agencies, one rural and one urban.

Both approaches were paired with The Family-centred Assessment and Intervention Approach (FAA) (Kysela et. al., 1996). Family-centred practice principles and the Family Adaptation Model are the theoretical foundations of this approach. With complete participation of the family, a five-part profile of the child' s and family' s strengths and potential needs in the areas of demands, appraisals, coping, supports, and adaptation are assessed. Agreement between the practitioner and the family members, on the nature of the profile, is a requirement of successful use of the approach.

Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the influence of two family-centred practice approaches, the Natural Teaching Strategies Approach/NTS (McDonald et. al., 1996) and the Cooperative Family Learning Approach/CFL (Drummond, et. al., 1996), on family resiliency as opertionalized through the dimensions of the Family Adaptation Model: Adaptation, Demands, Appraisals, Coping, and Supports.

Research Questions

1) At baseline, are the experimental groups equivalent on the measures of the dimensions of the Family Adaptation Model: Adaptation, Demands, Appraisals, Coping, and Supports?
2) At six months, do the intervention groups show improvement over the comparison group in the dimensions of the Family Adaptation Model: Adaptation, Demands, Appraisals, Coping, and Supports and in child-parent interaction measures?
3) How do the measures of the independent variable (Demands) and the mediating variables (Appraisals, Coping, and Supports) account for variance in the dependent variables (Adaptation) of the Family Adaptation Model at baseline and six months and child-parent interaction measures?

Method

The family-centred approaches, described in this report, were delivered in each of the families' homes on alternate weeks over a period of six months. The interventionists were chosen for their exceptional ability to work with the type of families in the sample and complete continuity of interventionist over time was achieved. In addition, all efforts were made to meet the scheduling requirements of the families. Indeed, it was routine for the interventionists to return to some families' homes time after time in order to make the contacts scheduled in the treatment protocols. Further, the families in the study had access to incentives to continue for the length of the project. Clearly, the length of these treatments, the matching of interventionist to family context, the monitoring of the protocols through weekly meetings, and the presence of incentives to the families places the implementation of these family-centred approaches outside the usual early intervention programs in place in community health settings in Canada.

Results

The family-centred approaches evaluated in this report were designed to enhance two factors protective of resiliency: the NTS was directed at continued development of effective parenting; and the CFL was to enhance family responsiveness to crises. Effects were expected to occur in all dimensions of the Family Adaptation Model. Marginally significant and appropriate differences between the intervention groups and the comparison group were reported for Adaptation and Appraisals. Correlational analysis gave rise to continuing support for the Family Adaptation Model.

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Where Are The Girls?

Vernon Johnson, Executive Director, Karen Z. Schulte, MSE, & Mary V. Boles, LSW

Since its inception in 1983, the PACE Program has provided community-based services to both boys and girls; however, as is true historically, human services have been geared to the needs of boys, and incidentally, provided to girls (Caron, 1991). While the PACE Program model of service delivery is holistic, including the youth, family, school, and community, the majority of our students were boys. We had few girls referred to our day treatment program. Typically, youth are referred to our day treatment program because they are actively acting out problems in school that significantly interferes with their education. All of our students must be staffed 3.6 Behavior Disordered (BD), the most restrictive level. It seemed easier for sending schools to document and to justify the academic ratings for boys. Girls who experience problems in school may be aggressive and loud, but rarely are in special education. It is more difficulty, therefore, to justify rating the girls 3.6 BD in order to refer them to PACE. In the community, girls enter the Child Welfare and Juvenile Justice System differently than boys. While boys enter the system for actions directed at others in the community, girls enter the system for status offenses such as running away, truancy, offenses within the family, such as fighting, incorrigible behavior, physical or sexual abuse (Schwartz and Orlando, 1987).

In a recent report from the Des Moines Police, statistics indicate that our of 1,217 youths reported as runaways in 1995, 663 or 54% were females. A high percentage of troubled girls do not attend school regularly, nor do they formally drop out. A recent report by the American Association of University Women entitled "Hostile Hallways," (1993) indicates that blatant rage acts of aggression and sexual harassment towards girls in school may be a factor in some girls' nonattendance. Referral sources did not think of the PACE Day Treatment Program as a resource for girls in the way they did for boys. When girls were referred to our program, they were often in a ratio of 1 girl to 30 boys. It was difficult for girls to be successful in this environment. Also, many adolescent hormonal issues complicated the girls' progress in our program, as the majority of our girls were already dealing with issues of victimization.

At the end of the 1994-95 school year, community leaders in the Des Moines area, including judges, school board members, and human service providers, were asking, "what about the girls?" The PACE administration decided to implement a pilot program geared tot he gender specific issues of girls. The administration sought out training from the State of Iowa Juvenile Justice Department, which secured Rebecca Maniglia from the Community Research Associates in Colorado. Ms. Maniglia brought to Iowa a representative from a girls' program in Florida, coincidentally named PACE for Girls. We learned various statistics on girls in the educational system included in the American Association of University Women's report, "How Schools Short-Change Girls" (1992). In a later training, Ms. Maniglia incorporated findings from, among others, Mary Phiper's books, "Reviving Ophelia," stressing the loss of true self girls experience in adolescence and the effects of the culture on their lives. Piper also discussed short-comings in the academic systems that create barriers for girls to be successful. The PACE Program made a commitment to offer gender-specific programming to both boys and girls. In November, 1994, we recruited seven girls and began a girls' classroom. There was one teacher, a teacher associate, and one caseworker.

Girls' issues seemed more complicated than boys. Perhaps it was because, as Ann Caron describes in "Don't Stop Letting Me" (1991), girls and women form their identity in relationships and interactions with others. Primary to the PACE girls has been relationships to their families. These relationships are often complex with issues of worry about mother and experiences that are beyond those of adolescents. Casework services are seen as integral to the girls' success in the academic program.

At the beginning of the 1995-96 school year, we added another classroom with a teacher and associate. We now have a middle school and high school classroom. There are currently three caseworkers working with approximately 20 girls. Services include weekly in-home counseling, weekly individual counseling with the girls, daily crisis counseling, daily "feelings" groups held in the classroom and including the teaching staff, and biweekly after-school enrichment activities. The casework staff carry pagers and are accessible to girls and their families 24 hours a day, 7 days a week. The academic and therapeutic staff are in frequent contact throughout the day. Casework staff actually spend time in the classroom daily to observer the girls' interactions with each other and with teachers, and to be available to mediate conflict. Most of the PACE girls have difficulty relating to other girls and adults. The academic and therapeutic staff work continuously on communication and developing a working relationship with each other. It takes a continued effort to maintain a harmonious working relationship that will create a seamless link between school, home, and the community.

Curriculum

The curriculum is by far the most exciting part of the program, but also the most challenging. There simply are not texts available that portray women as strong role models. The teachers have to pull material from several different sources. Several catalogs that are extremely helpful are as follows: "The Company of Women," "The Self-Esteem Store," "Courage to Change," "Free Spirit; Self-help for Kids," and "Women's History Catalog."

All subject areas follow Des Moines District level texts as a guide. The Language Arts curriculum is supplemented by works of literature by women. Field trips may include trips to Border Book Store or Barnes and Noble when they have female authors visit to speak about their books. Field trips to the Des Moines Register, the new stations, and library would allow the opportunity to see women in action in their careers.

Science is daily for one hour. Students will be prepared to take upper level science courses once they return to their own schools. Once again, included in the rigors of learning science would be guest speakers and field trips that help make women scientists more visible in their lives.

The Social Sciences curriculum is supplemented by visits to the capitol, guest speakers such as Roxanne Conlin, Bonnie Campbell, etc. One task may be to rewrite a chapter in their current textbook to be more inclusive of women and people of color.

Mathematics is also taught on a daily basis, and students will be prepared to move into upper level Math courses upon returning to school. Tutoring will be available for students after school from 4:00 p.m. to 5:00 p.m. The relevancy of math in their lives needs to be taught and demonstrated through activities, field trips, and guest speakers.

Physical Education meets two times per week for one hour. Along with the standard Des Moines curriculum, weight training and self-defense for women are included. Students are encouraged to take part on teams in their home schools such as track, volleyball, basketball, etc.

The social skills class is taught by the teacher/associate team. Emphasis in this two day per week class is on assertiveness training for women. There are units on sexual harassment, sexually transmitted diseases, and date rape. Guest speakers will include Victim Services, Planned Parenthood, and someone from the Police Department. A field trip in the spring to "Take Back the Night," a rally of people against violence toward women, may be scheduled with parental permission.

Outcome

From our first year, 1994-95, there were four Caucasian and four biracial girls in the first group of girls. In 1994-95, all seven girls improved their attendance. The most dramatic increase was by 80%. Fifty percent of the girls transitioned from PACE to an appropriate educational placement. Twenty-five percent (25%) went to out-of-home placement, and 25% did not complete the program. Six girls were adjudicated delinquent, one was adjudicated a Child in Need of Assistance, and one was adjudicated both. The majority of girls spent 13 to 18 months in the program. Fifty percent (50%) of the girls came from blended families, 25% were from single-parent families, 12% lived with a grandparent, and 12% lived in a foster home.

Staff and Schedule

The Day Treatment team is comprised of one full-time teacher, one full-time teacher associate, one family casework therapist, and three individual casework therapists. (This is the team provided to all PACE students, so it is actually no different than what our male students receive.) All positions would be filled female staff.

The schedule begins at 7:30 in the morning through 4:00 in the afternoon. The mornings are filled with academic subjects while the first part of the afternoon is PE, group therapy, and social skills. The second part of the afternoon is recreational and vocational. The casework therapists are available to these students on a 24-hour on call basis.

The Students

Each girl is tested when she comes into our program in all academic areas and in functional living skills. A comparison is done when she leaves to assess growth, and skill building is monitored throughout the school year. The girls are all at-risk for dropping out of school. The classroom currently has nine girls. Child care and flex schedules can be offered as needed. Students who have been out of school can re-enter here and every effort will be made to help them catch up. Caseworkers meet individually with the girls two times per week. They also meet with the family to resolve issues. I suggest the casework-therapist also encourages parents to increase their own educational level, especially the mothers, and offer suggestions on child care for younger siblings. The families are involved in a family night one time per month at school which provides education on a variety of topics and fun. Child care is provided.

We have developed a classroom model based on current research. The areas of key importance are as follows: curriculum changes, self-confidence building, strengthening the family and their level of education, and providing opportunities for female students to re-enter school after they've dropped out. It is our hope that this day treatment program will help female students realize their dreams and hopes for the future.

What Do Preschoolers Know About Mathematics?

Robin Farman & Jean Dinnendyk

Recent research on the mathematical achievement of young children prompts one to question the widely accepted views of Piaget in this regard. Do mathematical concepts occur naturally and spontaneously according to well defined stages of development? Researchers have begun to concentrate on assessing the development of mathematical concepts in appropriate contexts. Aubrey (1993), Hughes (1986), and Gelman and Gallistel (1978) examined the mathematical competencies of pre-school children and suggest how this knowledge could inform instruction and curriculum development. The aims and objectives of early mathematics education need to be redefined to attend to the important link between the informal concrete mathematical knowledge which children bring to school and the formal symbolism of the school curriculum.

This study investigates the informal mathematical knowledge and competencies of 40 reception class children in English speaking, working class homes in Pietermaritzburg, Kwazulu-Natal. The aim is to assess the range of mathematical knowledge and cognitive skills of young children aged 5-6 years before they begin the programme of pre mathematics skills in the reception class. Mathematical competence can be attributed to innate abilities and the mediated learning experiences of the home environment.

The assessment tasks were adapted from those of Aubrey (1993), Young-Loveridge (1989), and Wright (1991). These are compatible with the key number activities in the "Learning Through Activity Programme" used in the reception class in this province. The tasks were presented during individual interviews, using everyday objects and familiar activities. Careful attention was paid to the language used in the testing procedure so as to be sure that the child had fully understood the question. Tasks included rote counting, understanding the cardinality rule, numeral recognition, written representation of numbers, ordering numbers, addition and subtraction with concrete objects, social sharing and multiplication, estimation, patterning and an understanding of shape, space, measurement, time, and ordinal numbers.

Children were assessed on the number of correct responses and the strategies used to solve the mathematical problem were recorded. The results confirm the findings of previous studies: there is a wide range in levels of number knowledge among children beginning the pre-school year. Most children enter this year with considerable knowledge about numbers. Low-attaining children had some basic number knowledge but could not cope with higher numbers or more abstract tasks. Higher scoring children were already competent in most areas of the reception class mathematics curriculum with the ability to use mathematical language appropriately and with understanding; count well beyond twenty; showing knowledge of the sequence of number words and their quantitative value; recognize numerals and represent them; add and subtract using small numbers; sequence events and objects in correct order of size, time, or pattern and differentiate shapes and position in space.

Most of the young children tested showed an interest in number and a natural enthusiasm to count and grapple and persevere with mathematical problems. This study showed that young children are competent users of numbers when account is taken of their limitations: they are generally restricted to working with small numbers and are clearly influenced by the context in which problems are presented. As the curriculum is suited to the low scorers, the majority of pupils are not provided with challenges to advance. Teachers may be unaware of the extent and range of children's mathematical knowledge, and the strategies used for manipulating numbers.

Initial and ongoing assessment of each child's competence would enable teachers to develop and evaluate a meaningful curriculum.

For every child to realize his/her potential implies instruction that is appropriate to the level and pace of learning. Besides the informal observations which teachers make, a more accurate and systematic assessment is required for planning mathematics instruction so that learning activities will move children from covering skills and concepts which they have already mastered and provide opportunities for incremental learning and cognitive growth.

Recognition of the informal strategies children possess when they start school will form an important link between their own concrete knowledge and the new language of formal mathematics. These strategies are meaningful to the child and should be the basis from which mathematics education starts.

Further research should refine the assessment of children's mathematical knowledge and investigate the influences upon later mathematical achievements. There is a need to establish applied research programmes in collaboration with teachers so that there will be a better understanding of the learning needs of the child as based on the level of ability and number knowledge present when they enter the school situation.

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Teachers' Attitudes Towards the Education of Partially-sighted Students in a Regular Secondary School.

Sonja Goedeke & Robin Farman

Education in South Africa has been characterized by division, discrimination, and disorganization. Resources and services were abundant in the traditionally white schools and virtually non-existent for pupils of other races. Since 1991, segregated schools have been opened, efforts are in place to eliminate prejudice and discrimination, and to redress the imbalances of the past, and policies of training teachers have been revised to ensure that the needs of all children are met (Donald et al., 1997:19). It is important that other bases of discrimination in this country, such as disability, are not overshadowed in the debate about racial discrimination. Educators could use the current context of change in SA education to introduce and implement policies of inclusive education for those with disability.

"Special" education as a separate and specialized wing of the education system, that takes responsibility for the education of children disabled in some way, has its roots in the belief that because of their limitations or disabilities, some children would require different education from that received by the majority. Education for the blind and partially-sighted pupil in South Africa is still based on this belief, and thus takes place almost exclusively in special schools. Recently the practice of separate special schools has come under attack as a fundamental denial of human rights. Internationally a movement has occurred towards including children with disabilities in regular schools. There is increasing awareness of the need to focus on changing the classroom contexts in which all children learn (Green, et al., 1995:1) and defining the school and classroom culture as including children with diverse backgrounds, abilities, and contributions (Salisbury, 1991: 147). With the emphasis on human rights and equal opportunity in the 1996 SA constitution, and commitment to the Salmanca Statement in 1994, it is appropriate to examine the move towards inclusive education.

Inclusion of children with visual impairment has been successful in other countries (Jones and Southgate, 1989; Pascewicz; 1986). Agrawal's study (1992) in India concluded that, "It is clear that the concept of mainstreaming is viable even in a developing country like India," and Gwalla-Ogisi (in Farman and Kriegler, 1994) comments that other third world countries have developed schools for all children, regardless of race, handicap, or socio-economic status.

It is necessary to focus on the views of regular service providers, since it is on them, to a large extent, that the success of inclusive education ventures depends. A questionnaire asking about the desirability and feasibility of including children with visual impairments in mainstream education was administered to the teaching staff of a large coeducational, nonracial school. Teachers' attitudes towards inclusion were related to the degree of visual impairment of the child: the greater the degree of impairment, the less likely teachers thought that the children should be mainstreamed and the less likely they were to be prepared to teach the children as members of regular classes. Teachers were positive towards and willing to include (80.6% in favour) the *partially-sighted* child in their class, while 19% of teachers agreed in principle with mainstreaming blind pupils, and 29% were prepared to have a blind pupil in their class.

Inclusion was supported if the child could fit in with the system, and major adaptations, demands on time, and changes in instructional method were not required from the teachers. Teachers recognized that current teaching practices were not geared towards the accommodation of diversity, but felt that they were under pressure and change brought with it extra demands.

Caution should be exercised in generalizing from this study. These findings are positive in two senses as teacher commitment is (a) "critical to the implementation of innovations", and (b) this commitment "often emerged at the end of the implementation cycle, after the teachers had gained mastery of the professional expertise needed to implement the new innovation" (Villa et al., 1996:30). Teachers in this study were favourable towards inclusion of children with mild visual disabilities. After experience with these pupils teachers might become committed to including pupils with severe disabilities. Teachers had no educationally motivated, ideological objections to inclusion, but advanced ideological reasons in its favour. Perhaps this can be explained in the climate of heightened political awareness in South Africa. Objections were based on practical concerns such as finances, resources, support, demands on time, and workloads.

This implies that practical factors will be needed to be taken into account for inclusive education to work. Pre-service and in-service training is needed to equip teachers with greater skills in accommodating diversity and the necessary confidence. Teachers will require support from necessary special educational professionals and services. Administrators will need to commit themselves to ensuring that teachers are not overloaded. Consultancy models have been attempted with varying degrees of success elsewhere (Cronin, 1992) and provide guidelines for similar strategies in this country.

Inclusive education for children with visual impairments needs to be implemented and evaluated. Green, et al. (1995) expresses skepticism that inclusion can work in the SA classroom, in view of the difficulties in accommodating the existing student diversity. On the other hand, there is widespread agreement that schools and the curriculum in SA must be changed. This presents "an opportunity to reexamine the aims of education in the light of the values which communities which to promote. It would be disastrous to permit the adoption of a new curriculum which yet again ignores the developmental needs of many children" (Green et al., 1995:4).

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A Different Kind of At-Risk

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The term "At-Risk" was coined as part of the educational reform of the 1980's. The emphasis of this reform was to focus on the needs of all students. The term posed a problem for educators. Was it enough to be aware of the characteristics and factors that could address the problems of these children or was there a lack of knowledge and skill base of teachers to meet the individual needs of these students.

Many parents and teachers use the term "at-risk" to mean children who are not succeeding academically. The Dade County Public Schools has identified and developed intervention strategies for students who are considered potential dropouts. The System has a comprehensive plan for students in grades 4 through 12 who are considered to "at-risk" that will allow them an opportunity to continue appropriate educational endeavors. According to the District Comprehensive Dropout Prevention Program 1996-97, the dropout prevention identification includes two or more of, but is not necessarily limited to the following criteria:

1. Major exceptionality- appropriate exceptionality designation for each included exceptional education student.
2. Limited English proficiency (LEP) assigned to ESOL five semesters or more.
3. Absence- 15 or more occurrences of absence in the previous school year.
4. Age- two or more years older than the grade level average.
5. Stanine- Reading less than four.
6. School mobility- ability- attended three or more schools within the last two years.

7. Academic average- three of more F's or D's in the previous school year.

8. Retained one year.

9. Social and emotional maladjustment-student exhibits behavior of non disciplinary nature which interferes with his/her school success.

Historically, educators have considered students at risk who are from minority or impoverished backgrounds. Often the term culturally deprived or disadvantaged is used when referring to social class, ethnic origin, sex, or geographic location. Educators must realize that many of these children come to school with attitudes, knowledge, or skills that are not compatible with learning in the majority of our schools. The very nature of American school environment that is designed primarily to accommodate the learning styles and Anglo American culture may indeed be part of the problem. "Ecologically speaking, educators are not providing a good 'fit' for these diverse groups; and therefore, the problem is not necessarily inherent in individual students" (Welch and Sheridan, 1995, p.28).

In addition to other identifiable factors of the "at risk" students, educators must begin to look at other related factors that might appropriately describe the "at risk" from diverse socio-, ethnic, or cultural background. A large number of minority students especially in urban areas have been identified as being at risk. Many times they are classified as both special education students as well as at risk even though one of the criteria used for identifying at risk students include exceptional students. Wang (1995) indicates that the bigger issue relates to a dysfunctional societal context, poverty, or the need for bilingual or ESL programming. Often times the words used to describe children who are not achieving change or deem more acceptable. According to

Glazer (1996) it seems to be okay to be diverse but less okay to be at risk, hard to teach, or hard to reach.

Socioeconomic status (SES) delineates social class, which in turn is associated with poverty level. According to Gollnick and Chin (1990) SES and class are determined by five interrelated factors: income, wealth, occupation, education, and power. In order for children from stressful environments associated with low socioeconomic factors to survive, they must act tough to confront challenges confronting them. The success of these students is then based upon how well their teachers understand their lives outside of school, and the skills that allow them to survive in their own environment which are often incompatible to a school setting.

The premise here is that while the information previously discussed in this paper are significant there is an even greater and broader issue that must be addressed as part of the larger picture in dealing with "at-risk" students. Even if all of the other issues are resolved, many of them as well as other students would still be "at-risk".

According to Doyle (1997) character education is made up of three elements; example, study, and practice. We cannot live without values. What we choose to do or not to do reflect our values. The scientist, the barber, the teacher, and our family all shape our values whether it is done consciously or unconsciously. Character education must be an integral part of the education of children. However, for it to effective, it must be modeled by adults. A program named Character Counts is one of the many approaches to character education. It incorporates what are referred to as pillars of character which include trustworthiness, respect, responsibility, fairness, caring, and citizenship. The American culture tends to place great value on individual accomplishments and material wealth. Too often caring about others is at the bottom of our priorities. When we build fences, walls, and other barriers to keep out those we consider less desirable for any reason, the inference is that we do not care about them. Even new towns and cities are created to ensure that, as much as possible, others who are considered different or not worthy are left out.

There are a number of factors that may put students at risk that involve lack of equal opportunity and experience. Additionally, they encounter significant difficulties in a variety of environments that make them less empowered. The last factor often follows them throughout their lives and leads to a great deal of bitterness and frustration as well as a less than satisfactory quality of life.

We can address a lot of the issues related to the factors that have been identified or associated with at risk students and if we do not address the issue or the value of caring, we have indeed not resolved the problem. If we continue to allow children not to value caring about others including themselves, their families, and even the earth itself, they will indeed be at risk.

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Seeing Through New Eyes

Diana Suskind, Ed.D. & Daniel Nomishan, D.Ed.

Introduction

Shabana is going around the building taking pictures of people, places, and events. She is engaged in an educational process. How does this fit in with what most people believe and accept as educational enterprise? Many people think of education as taking place in a structured environment with a teacher directing. What, then is education and why may what Shabana is doing be considered as legitimate educational process?

Education has been variously defined as "the acquisition of the act of the utilization of knowledge" (Whitehead, 1964) and as "an activity based on some intervention which is designed to produce desired changes in individuals" (Marler, 1975). It is evident from these definitions and similar others like them that there is need for some kind of change. The change could come while the student is engaged in the learning process, not only in the classroom but outside as well. John Dewey has been reported (Bukatko & Daehler, 1995) to have advocated that education as an end in itself rather than a means to an end should "integrate the child into the larger society." Dewey believed that as children participate in activities in their real world, they would also be learning traditional academic information. It is also believed that providing an environment where children can be motivated would enhance learning (Bellon, Bellon, & Blank, 1992). Children were interested in taking pictures. Hence it can be concluded that they were learning.

The conceptualizations of education stated above and many others tend to stress the strict division of education into disciplines with specific content. For many, learning is taking place only when students are studying science, mathematics, social studies, etc. The process reported as part of this workshop is an attempt to examine different ways of looking at education.

The workshop, *Seeing Through New Eyes,* is based on work done at Fitchburg State College (Mass) which emphasizes that there are other ways subject matter can be taught to contribute to the solutions of problems in the real world of children. The structure of such a curriculum recognizes that the classroom is a microcosm of the society and as such is representative of the cultural, racial, and linguistic diversity that exist in the society. The goal of the program was to help prepare students to recognize and accept cultural diversity of others and to understand diversity through the medium of photography. Photography Project Description

The project involved 12 student teachers enrolled in an innovative course (Piggy-backing) designed to help them "learn" from the 26 fifth grade students of the McKay Campus School, Fitchburg (Mass) just as the youngsters are expected to learn from the college students. The fifth grade students consisted of male and female children. There were black, white, Hispanic, and Asian-American children in this group. The fifth grade teacher had facilities for development and printing of photographs.

The 5th graders chose the student teachers they were going to team up with during the four week project period at the initial meeting. At the beginning of the project, the children and college students planned the entire project. Partners then went around the school building and grounds taking photographs of people in action (candid pictures). The students also were instructed in the techniques and processes of picture taking, film development, and printing. They in turn "taught" their student teacher partners what they had learned. Each team member had the opportunity to take three pictures.

While some were processing the proof sheets, others worked together on posters that advertised the upcoming photo exhibit. They also worked together on posters that would be used to display projects once they have been completed. The photo exhibit was planned as a grand finale for the project to be held in the Fitchburg State College Library. As part of the completed work, children and college students wrote titles and short stories of their work–what it meant and how it depicted, through the eye of the camera, particular types of diversity. The photo exhibit was open to the public and was attended by college students and faculty, other classes of the McKay Campus School, and friends and parents of participating children.

Discussion and Implications

Seeing Through New Eyes has made a difference on several levels. To begin with, the goal of showing diversity through the use of a camera gave credence to the selected title of the project. It clearly reinforced the view that the process of education can be accomplished through means outside of formal classroom structures. Furthermore, by taking pictures and processing them, students were developing creative thinking skills and problem solving. The writing of stories using the computer emphasized the integration of language arts based on themes in which the children were interested. Use of the camera emphasized technology. There was extensive integration of math, science, social studies, and reading.

Another way that the project made a difference pertains to the role of the teacher in developing the children's self-esteem and self-concept. As students took pictures and related them to diversity, they thought about themselves. Students appeared to have developed independence and self-reliance. Students learned to feel good about themselves. As one student put it, "It does not matter whether my skin is black or white, it is what is inside that counts."

It was observed that both college students and their fifth grade partners worked together and interacted with the instructors and with other students from other groups. This showed the importance of cooperative learning. It was also noted that students demonstrated great confidence as they proudly stood beside their pictures and explained what they meant to them. The project had several implications for classroom teaching and for teacher preparation. First, the development of creativity encourages openness, exploration, explaining differences, making comparisons, and acquiring the ability to generalize. Second, the process enhanced non directive, student-centered education as well as informal self-development. It also is a lesson to preservice teachers who begin to understand that, as teachers, they would constantly work with and learn from their students. Like Dewey (Mandus, Kellaghan, & Schwab, 1989), classroom and student teachers must realize that whenever we are faced with a problem, we need to "interact with the real world that is around us, with the aim of attaining knowledge that is useful rather than eternal." Most important is the realization that this project was about diversity and the hope that the future is not going to be as dark and full of hate as it was once thought to be.

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Diffusing Undesirable Effects of Ethnicity in Nigeria Through Multicultural Education

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Nigeria, like many African countries is a conglomeration of ethnic peoples with distinct languages and subcultures. With a population over 100 million, Nigeria is one of Africa's most populous nations. Nigeria has, however, gone through the best of times and the worst of times–oil boom, civil war, economic stagnation, and ethnopolitical rivalry. Nigeria may be young, having become independent only in 1960, but looking back to the pre-independence days and immediately after independence, those were the times when you were proud to be a Nigerian and an African. It was the era when Nigerians like Dr. Nnamndi Azikiwe, Chief Obafemi Awolowo, Dr. K. O. Mbadiwe and others by their education and political struggles became role models for many Africans. True models, not for their ethnicity or their religious backgrounds but for their high educational achievements, quest for democracy, and great sense of patriotism. It was during this time also that the famous Katsina College and other budding institutions of higher learning in Nigeria produced such legends as Sir Ahmadu Bello, Sir Abubakar Tafawa Balewa, Dr. Alvin Ikoku, and Mrs. Bolaji Idowu who all fought hard for the country's freedom from British rule. These Nigerians joined forces with their counterparts in other parts of Africa such as Dr. Kwame Nkruma, Jomo Kenyata, Nelson Mandela, Aminu Kano, Tom Mboya, Gamel Abdel Nasser, Patrice Lumumba, and others to fight for democracy in Africa.

After the hard fought independence by Nigeria, there began a period of deteriorating ethnic rivalry. This has tended to create division within states and throughout the nation. It has led to several military coups and general economic and political instability. The purpose of this paper presentation is to examine ways by which ethnic squabbles in Nigeria and elsewhere can be eliminated through the use of multicultural education.

It was Dr. Nnamdi Azikiwe who once said that Nigerians should look to the future with "increased attention to the civic and political needs of the nation; increased attention to the social and personal needs of the nation; and increased attention to the economic and technological needs of the nation." (Ikejiani, et al, 1964). This means that education should be our number one priority no matter who is in power. It would appear that the introduction of western education in African countries has "weakened the bonds of family and tribal life" and many people may feel that they are cut off from their supporting roots (Castle, 1965). This should not be the case. While we strive to obtain the highest western education possible, there is need to continue to draw from traditional African education which places emphasis on the development of physical skills, character, respect for elders, intellectual skills, and a sense of belonging and active participation in family and community affairs as well as an "understanding, application and promotion of the cultural heritage of the community at large" (Fafunwa, 1974, p. 20).

Nigerians (and other Africans) everywhere need to wake up and demand true democracy, knowing that only in a true democratic society can the doors of educational opportunity be opened for all people to be educated to their maximum ability. Unfortunately the nation has been in a quagmire for years because of unwanted effects of ethnicity. People have been killed and property destroyed during periods of unrest. Multicultural education can be seen as providing a remedy for this problem.

Nigeria is a nation of many ethnic groups with distinct languages and dialects. Language, Ruiz (1995) says, gives us the power to "define, to decide the nature of lived experience." This power may determine dominance and subordination. It must be a factor in the colonialists "forcing" the world languages of English, French, and Spanish on most African and South American peoples. We need fluency in local languages because language barriers do limit communication and often may bring about misunderstanding between people. This problem may be eradicated by teaching all children at least one, if not all, of the three major languages commonly spoken in Nigeria–Hausa, Ibo, and Yoruba. Other countries can also select a language or languages that are the commonest to be studied in schools.

Another recipe to prevent undesirable effects of ethnicism is that of maintaining a high percentage of literacy for all Africans. Literacy is an important factor in helping people unite (Denga, 1991). It would enable adults better communicate and keep up with current events. Educated people are more likely to participate effectively in economic and political decision making. It is generally believed that education is a "powerful weapon against ignorance, disease, squalor, and poverty, as a means of raising an enlightened, lively, and industrious society and of producing a prosperous nation" (Taiwo, 1980).

Nigerians are joined together by the same African culture. However, there are unique cultural differences which may be due to religious and other backgrounds. Multicultural education would ensure that all Nigerians are not only aware of other ethnic groups' subcultures, but also appreciate, accept, and affirm them. Multicultural education is an attempt to help all students to "develop knowledge, attitudes, and skills needed to function within their own microcultures, . . . other microcultures, and within the global community" (Banks & Banks, 1993). Similarities in these cultures, rather than ethnicity, would be strengthened and reinforced. It is important to remember that individuals function on strong ethnic affiliation, ranging from "no recognition of one's ethnicity in daily life to an almost complete identification with an ethnic, religious, or nation-state group in all activities, choices, and designations of self-identification" (King, Chipman, & Cruz-Janzen, 1994). Multicultural education would ensure that more attention be given to intergroup relations and prejudice reduction.

The idea of multicultural education can be a good lesson for all areas of the world that have had a history of ethnic uneasiness such as Nigeria, Southern Africa, the Middle East, Bosnia, and so on. Such an education provides opportunities for all to attain a high quality of literacy, language acquisition, and reduce both egocentricity and ethnocentricity. No one envisaged how soon South Africa would be out of the crutches of Apartheid but that obnoxious policy is history. Ethnic squabbles would be history everywhere if we believe and apply what Kwame Nkrumah (1964) speaking of imperialism said that

> "...the end is certain, it can only come about under pressure of nationalist awakening and an alliance of progressive forces which hasten its end and destroy its existence. It will end when there are no nations and peoples exploiting others; when there are no vested interests exploiting the earth, its fruits and resources for the benefit of the few against the well-being of the many."

The eradication of unwanted effects of ethnicity is possible only if African leaders and other peoples of African descent would work together to usher in an era when the peoples of Tiv, Ashanti, Masai, Swazi, Yoruba, and others would learn to live together and lift up one another.

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Infant, Borders and Boundaries:

See How Infants in My Care Can Move More Freely

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When one visits a pre-school or nursery establishment, one can see very young children and infants–beaming, excited, anxious, trusting–as they are being brought by their parents to be with childcare workers. This is a big responsibility for childcare workers. How can we help parents at the early stages of their child's development? It is generally accepted that this must be done as early as possible. As David Ellcind (1989) puts it, "From the moment your child is born, she must begin to learn about this world." The infant's behaviors are related to the actions of others and the total environment–being touched, talked to, soothed. This workshop will examine how parents and educarers can use naturalistic activities to enhance infant motor development and special learning, how parents and educarers can provide opportunities for infants to integrate position direction, distance, organization, pattern, and concentration through the use of their bodies. Participants will develop a rationale for seeking to discover infants' "borders and boundaries."

The workshop is based on the work of Magda Gelber described by the Resources for Infant and Educarers (RIE) philosophy. This philosophy was also the basis for a course in parent guidance, Parent-N-Me, developed at Fitchburg State College (Mass) where pre-service teachers work with parents and their infants to determine the importance or otherwise of infant observation and consistent behavior by adult educarer and how allowing the infant to assume the role of "initiator" can and do help in many areas of her development.

The philosophy of RIE emphasizes that "caring activities are optional times for interaction, cooperation, intimacy, and mutual enjoyment, providing social learning experiences which encourage full participation of the infant and educarer" (Gerber, 1984). It is only when we provide such an environment would infants be free to explore their environment. They should do this readily without much intervention from an adult. The impetus for the process described in this paper also comes from Pikler's (1979) notion that "the infant who participates actively in his care, and lives in satisfactory emotional balance, will be active and initiating also beyond the ministrations of care."

The importance of what Suskind (1985) calls "tarry time" has also been stressed as what parents and educarers must exercise. This is time between one end point and the next beginning point in speech. It may be measured by the amount of silence that occurs during the verbal communication of two individuals, and is expressed as a percentage of total observation time. For example, an infant may have become calm when being rocked and we may erroneously believe that the calming down was the result of the rocking process. It might have been due to an earlier event which had not produced the desired effect due to tarry time. Consistent observation and listening to the infant would ensure you know her tarry time necessary for healthful development. These concepts of caring, observation of tarry time, and language influences were demonstrated in a study of Brittany, an 8 months old infant.

Brittany in her Natural Environment

Brittany is an 8 months old infant. She is found to be at ease doing new movements–crawling over objects, learning to stand, climbing the stairs, and so on. Care is taken to ensure her safety. Brittany pursues new ways of doing things and explores her environment with confidence as well as displaying her accomplishments with pride.

During the time that Brittany was under study, Mary, her mother was also observed as intervention was provided for appropriate change. Initially, Mary was tense, less patient with her observation of Brittany, was unaware of tarry time, possessive of Brittany, and tended to hold her a lot. After ten weeks of observation and prescriptive teaching, several changes were observed.

Results and Analysis

As can be seen from the video, Brittany appeared to have picked up new behaviors such as observing, sharing, playing with others and herself, and learned self-regulated behavior such as choosing between a red cup and a blue cup to sitting at a table and pouring her own juice. Brittany tended to cling less to her mother and cried less.

The changes observed in Mary included the decreased frequency with which she gave the pacifier to Brittany, often laying her in a supine position on the floor observing, slowing down by telling Brittany what she is going to do before it, leaving her to move more freely, allowing Brittany to cry without immediately going to pick her up or comfort her. This by no means construe negligence. It is to emphasize the importance of infant initiative in her development. Brittany's mother also learned that she did not need expensive toys to stimulate interest in an infant. These changes were observed in pre-service teachers who were part of the study.

Discussion and Implications

Research has continued to support the importance of the parent in the early and later education of children (Anastasiow, 1988; Coleman, 1987; Gotts, 1989; Silvern, 1985). This calls for the need to educate parents, especially new parents, as they begin the task of rearing their young. Berger (1991) states that parents, by virtue of their greater interaction with their babies, become partners with professionals and a part of the system.

Parents and pre-service teachers appeared to have benefited by their experience with Brittany and other infants. This was evidenced by what students and parents said at the conclusion of the sessions. Said Mary, "Parent-N-Me taught me the importance of interacting with Brittany while diapering, feeding, bathing–to really pay attention, speak to her, tell her what I am doing, and give her choices . . . " Others commented that they observed similar changes in their behavior with their infant. For example, they noticed that infants were responding to them differently at the end than they did at the beginning of the session–more smiles, coos, and giggles. I believe this is a tested process for helping parents with the development of their infants and toddlers.

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Accepting Critical Thinking as a Teaching Tool for At-Risk Populations

Daniel A. Nomishan, D.Ed.

Introduction

There is no question that the one central thing to the job of the teacher is instruction. It is on this foundation that is built other related components of planning, content knowledge, human relation skills, knowledge of child development, and effective instructional strategies. Gone are the days when teaching was provided only in the form of teacher-centered, direct instruction . Other approaches such as the use of critical thinking strategies would greatly enhance learning of content. This paper is part of a workshop which would define critical thinking and examine how critical thinking strategies can be used in different content areas and used as a tool to teach at-risk student populations. These are individuals who experience various learning problems.

We often encounter some difficulty in our attempt to discuss critical thinking because people often tend to equate critical thinking with creative thinking and reasoning (Shulman & Carey, 1984), higher-order thinking (Doyle, 1983; Sykes, 1985), and thinking in general (Arendt, 1977). Despite all of the different definitions and approaches, most agree that critical thinking does involve cognitive processes which are related to thinking and the components of thought?

According to Gleitman (1991), the components of thought include: mental imagery (physical or idealistic), abstract elements which are not picture-like but symbolic, concepts, and propositions. In general, the thinking process appears to involve concept formation, formation of principles, comprehension, problem solving, decision making, scientific inquiry, composition, and oral discourse. There are, however, core thinking skills or processes involved in critical thinking. These are the skills needed for focusing, information gathering, for remembering, organizing, analyzing, generating, integrating, and evaluating. It is believed that these skills can be improved through transfer of training–learning to recognize and resist unrealistic ideas, circular reasoning, faulty generalizations.

At-risk Students and Problem Solving

The curriculum frameworks all stress problem solving in mathematics, science social studies, language arts, and reading. However, many educators may not be emphasizing problem solving, especially for at-risk student populations. Many times these may be synonymous to members of minority groups–Blacks, Hispanics, and learning disabled students. One of the most prevalent hurdles to problem solving is that of "fixation." This occurs when a person, in attempting to solve a problem, reaches a mental set which makes the person become fixated on one approach to the task, making it harder for the individual to think of it in any other way (Gleitman, 1991). It happens to teachers as much as it does to students.

Another obstacle to problem solving is what is known as "set and motivation" such as a tangible reward which tends to inhibit problem solving and creativity (Gleitman, 1991; Halpern, 1989). Halpern also named other factors which kill intrinsic motivation and hence thinking such as constant evaluation, surveillance, competition, and restricted choice. The teacher can help children overcome the hurdles to problem solving by helping them with the process of acquiring further knowledge, using relevant cognitive chunks, working backwards, using analogies, examining problems from different angles, providing opportunities for stating and testing hypotheses, and encouraging independent discovery and evaluation. Critical thinking skills can be applied to accomplish these tasks.

Several definitions of critical thinking may be advanced such as " the propensity and skill to engage in an activity, with reflective skepticism" McPeck (1981); a "reasonable, reflective thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe or do" (Ennis, 1985); and as "thinking that is purposeful, reasoned, and goal-directed" (Halpern, 1989). These ideas of critical thinking can define the way we teach it at the elementary, secondary, and post-secondary level.

Rationale and Strategies for Teaching Critical Thinking

The desire to teach critical thinking stems from the belief that students can be helped to improve their thinking. Critically informed populace would more likely "participate in forms of democratic political activity" (Brookfield, 1987) as well as work toward the improvement of the economy. Blacks and other minority groups need to make greater contribution toward this end. Critical thinking skills are applied when students are taught to recognize and/or construct sound arguments, apply the principles of logic and avoid fallacies in their reasoning. Reflective teachers are more likely to foster classrooms in which challenge and excitement are found.

A culture of thinking demands that we first develop student's attitudes such as a willingness to plan, flexibility, persistence, and willingness to self-correct. Second, we need to develop student's metacognition or knowledge about knowledge (Halpern, 1989). This involves the ability to make mental images, go through chunking, and see proportions and relations. It can easily be done while teaching in the content areas of art, language arts, social studies, reading, science and mathematics.

In conclusion, one would suggest that schools of the present and the future adapt curriculum models which attempt to help students critically perceive, analyze, interpret and discover a range of meanings. Similarly, since aspects of creative thinking are also important in the transfer of learning in all subject areas, it may be suggested that a holistic approach to thinking which makes use of the strengths of both types of thinking would be appropriate.

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Teachers' Perceptions of Their Influence in the Psycho-Emotional Development of Their Students

Jacqueline Akhurst, M.A.

In the education system in South Africa, many children with special needs are likely to remain in mainstream classrooms. The role of schools in providing psychological support is acknowledged in the White Paper on Education and Training (1995), however financial constraints have led to a cutting back of support personnel. The regular classroom teacher is thus an important person in terms of providing for the needs of a wide cross-section of in her care.

The need for transformation of education in South African schools is widely acknowledged, and plans are currently being made to transform teaching and learning processes (Department of Education, 1997). An outcomes-based curriculum is proposed. This will place greater emphasis on the development of pupil skills and participation rather than being content-driven. Teachers will need to create a learning environment which encourages the following: problem-solving and critical thinking, students working together as a team as well as being responsible for the management of their activities, and the development of students' ability to communicate effectively. There is little mention of teachers' roles in the discussion document Curriculum 2005 (Dept. of Education, 1997), however the teacher's role will be crucial. It is acknowledged that extensive in-service training will be necessary to enable teachers to act as facilitators of student activities and learning (Anstey, 1997).

During the apartheid era the teacher took an authoritative position, was viewed as a transmitter of knowledge, and the students were passive in the process. Teachers' roles were clearly circumscribed, and the majority of teachers depended on the authority of syllabi, textbooks and examinations to guide their teaching. In the proposed new approaches to education, teachers' roles and functioning will need to be more flexible and pupil-centred (Rogers & Freiberg, 1994). It is likely that the proposed shifts will be challenging for many teachers.

The context of educational transformation must be viewed in the broader socio-political context from which many traditionally African schools are emerging. The disruptions of family life by both apartheid structures and the political struggle, and the resultant societal conflicts exacerbated by economic constraints all impact on the daily functioning of schools. On interviewing school principals, Wedekind, Lubisi, Harley and Gultig (1996) found that "the difficulties faced in the day-to-day management of their schools were of such a compelling, immediate nature . . . Crisis management appeared to be the norm" (p.430).

Consideration of the above gives a sense of the complexity of demands faced by teachers, and of the difficult nature of their position. Greater attention needs to be directed to teachers as human beings in constant interaction with pupils (Ball & Goodson, 1992, 7-8). Goodson (1992) recommends "a research mode that above all takes teachers seriously and seeks to listen to 'the teacher's voice'"(p.10). In South Africa, this type of research is very limited and teachers have had little say in the process of change to this point (Jessop, 1996, p.99).

Participation in my research project was voluntary, and teachers with at least 5 years experience were interviewed. Eight secondary school teachers from four schools in the greater Pietermaritzburg area participated. The research was limited to black teachers because most of the recent research in schools in South Africa has focused on "open" schools, and traditionally African schools have been neglected, even though the majority of teachers in South Africa are black (Wedekind et al, 1996; Jessop, 1996). The teachers all teach in English, their second language, and were relatively comfortable in the language of the interviews. Two interviews with each teacher were undertaken.

The data collected are both rich and complex, and only a summary of the main trends is possible here. Without exception, the teachers underlined the importance of the underlying relationship which is built between teachers and students. Most perceived their role in the provision of emotional support to be an important foundation to their teaching, and saw successful teachers as those who showed commitment and concern, openness yet firmness, and the ability to provide guidance and care. However they felt that many factors worked against their being able to have success with many of their students.

The residue of the violent conflict in the area during the early 1990's is experienced both in the physical state of the schools and in relationships. Student aggression leads to problems with discipline in schools, and teachers are concerned that a large number of students are in school to stay off the streets. The teachers spoke of very little support for education from families or the community, and saw social issues as impacting very negatively on their being able to positively influence students.

Teachers feel unsupported in their role. They experience the Provincial Department of Education as unresponsive; and schools are seriously underresourced–two of the four schools did not have electricity, and one had only one communal tap for water. They also feel betrayed by unprofessional colleagues who further compromise the system.

The results of this study have implications for the training of teachers, recognition of the needs of teachers for greater support, and attention to the provision of help for a high proportion of school going adolescents who have psycho-emotional needs.

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The Preparation Of Special Educators In School Based Settings

Greg Prater, Ph.D. and Sam Minner, Ph.D.

Many models of special education teacher preparation exist and all have advantages and disadvantages. According to Huff and Brackman (1996), most special educators in the United States continue to be prepared in rather traditional campus-based programs which are very similar in nature and are characterized by limited opportunities for supervised practice and interactions with other educators, parents, and other professionals. Huff and Brackman stated that "...those responsible for most teacher preparation programs have apparently forgotten that teaching is an applied skill. Perhaps it is even an applied art. It must be practiced again and again before novices gain a high level of skill. Even with an incredible degree of practice, the act is never really mastered." (p. 45). Huff and Brackman go on to suggest that practice, under supervised conditions, is a key element lacking or missing in many preparation programs and they offer numerous suggestions for adding increased opportunities for applied work in teacher education programs. Their suggestions include utilizing Professional Development Schools, School-University Partnerships, and a variety of school-based teacher preparation programs to afford preservice teachers many and varied opportunities to gain knowledge, skills, and dispositions allowing them to begin their professional practices as confident and highly skilled professionals.

At the Center For Excellence In Education (CEE) at Northern Arizona University (NAU), we support numerous school-based teacher education programs and have had more than a decade of experience with them. In this paper, we describe three of our school based efforts designed to powerfully prepare special educators—The Rural Special Education Program, The Rural Multicultural Training Collaborative, and the PRAXIS Program.

The Rural Special Education Program

The Rural Special Education Program (RSEP) is a school-based special education teacher preparation program designed to prepare special educators for service in rural and remote areas. There is a special focus in this program on service to Native American learners and their families. Initiated in 1992, the RSEP is a partnership among the United States Department of Education, the Center For Excellence In Education at Northern Arizona University, the Kayenta Unified School District, and the Navajo Nation. Each year between five and ten students are selected from our campus for this program. Campus participants are carefully screened and are provided with a comprehensive orientation to the program and to the Navajo culture. These students are joined by a group of students residing in or near Kayenta. Most of these students (referred to as "local participants") are Native American and many of them hold positions as teacher-aides. The campus participants move to Kayenta each fall and live there throughout a fall and spring term. Kayenta is a small community located on the Navajo Nation. It is a frequent tourist destination as it is the gateway to the beautiful Monument Valley area—an incredible natural area of towering sandstone spires and rock formations. Campus students reside in apartments owned by the local school district. They work in local classrooms each morning and complete a full complement of special education classes each afternoon. Classes are managed by an on-site Program Manager who also teaches in the program. Additional instruction is provided by a Program Liaison (a faculty member who drives from the campus to Kayenta each week) and other campus faculty who visit Kayenta on an infrequent basis. Some instruction is delivered over an interactive instructional television system. Local participants are typically permitted to retain their teacher-aide positions in the mornings. They join the campus students for instruction each afternoon. In addition to the incredible amount of applied work these students do (each student works approximately twenty hours per week in a local classroom), they also are required to participate in a variety of other professional activities including excursions to other reservations and schools and participation in professional meetings and conferences. Results from this program reveal that participants graduate from the RSEP fully confident to assume leadership positions in rural schools and equally confident to serve diverse learners, especially Native American children. Since the beginning of the RSEP, only one minority participant has not completed the program. Additional information about this program has been published by Minner, Varner, and Prater (1996) and Brown (1995).

The Rural Multicultural Training Collaborative

Based upon our success in the RSEP, we implemented a similar program in 1993 called the Rural Multicultural Training Collaborative (RMTC). Like the RSEP, this program involves a number of campus participants as well a local participants. Each fall term, a group of students from our campus are selected for the program and travel to Tuba City, Arizona, a small Navajo community located about one hour from the Northern Arizona University campus. They reside in Tuba City for the entire fall term. They live in apartments owned by a local school district, work for approximately twenty hours per week in local classrooms, and complete eighteen semester hours of classes in the afternoons. As is the case in the RSEP, these students are instructed by an on-site Program Manager with some instruction provided by other campus faculty members. The campus students are joined each afternoon by a group of local participants , mostly Navajo or Hopi people many of whom have positions as instructional aides. After the fall term, the campus students continue the program while the Native American students are allowed a one semester hiatus from the program. Campus students go to Cuerevaca, Mexico for a three week intensive Spanish language program. In the spring term, they move to Yuma, Arizona where they work each morning in a school serving large numbers of Hispanic children. Each afternoon they complete another eighteen semester hours of classes provided by the Program Manager who also moves to Yuma. Campus participants are joined each spring term by a cohort of local students from the Yuma area. Again, many of these individuals are teacher-aides and most of them are Hispanic. They retain their teacher-aide position in the mornings and complete the NAU classes each afternoon. The following year the order of the NAU classes is reversed thus allowing the Navajo participants to complete the program over two fall terms and the Hispanic students to complete the program over two spring terms. Like the RSEP, completion rates for students in this program have been very high and preliminary evaluation data suggest that the program is very effectively preparing teachers to serve diverse learners.

The PRAXIS Program

The PRAXIS Program is a school-based teacher preparation program located in the Flagstaff Unified School District in Flagstaff, Arizona. The major purpose of the PRAXIS Program is to prepare elementary and special education teachers to powerfully serve all learners in diverse settings. Students in the PRAXIS Program spend three semesters at a school site and they complete all of their teacher preparation classes at the school. Students work approximately twenty hours per week in classrooms managed by Mentor Teachers. The NAU classes are taught by a combination of persons including an on-site Program Manager, several NAU faculty and Teaching Assistants, and teachers and administrators from the local school. As the name of the program implies, the focus of the program is on "praxis"—the junction of theory and practice.

Students learn about methods of authentic assessment and immediately practice those skills in a functioning classroom. Students learn about direct instruction and then try it in an applied setting. As has been the case in our other school-based projects, graduates of this program have assumed many leadership positions in the field. The loyalty and affiliation graduates of this program have for the program has been quite incredible.

Advantages Of School-Based Programs And Cautions

School-based special education teacher preparation programs are one very powerful way to prepare teachers to meet the needs of the diverse learners they will instruct in their professional practices. Students not only gain an incredible wealth of experience in these programs, they also learn much about school culture, professionalism, and collaboration. Schools also gain from these program in many ways. They gain the expertise and vitality of the faculty members and the novice teachers who work in the program. They also benefit from having a large number of additional adults in the school to assist in the learning process. We have learned much from our experience with school-based programs. The personnel working in the programs are critical. Not all faculty members can or should be assigned to this work. Costs of these programs may be high, especially initially, but cost-sharing with local schools is possible. In sum, we believe that school-based programs are viable solutions to many of ills plaguing teacher preparation in our nation. We think that these models may also have applications abroad.

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